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ABSTRACT

This document examines development efforts in Africa. While discussing issues in an African context, the document challenges students to consider a wider, global context. Africa, with its history of colonialism, its fragile soil, its expanding population, its struggle to provide people with the basic means of existence, illustrates very starkly the development problems and choices that face the world. Each of the document's parts include a table of contents, student background information, student activities, and teacher notes. The document is designed as a potpourri of resources for teachers. Individual units stand on their own, and teachers can select the sections that most closely link with their own curricula. To help teachers use this resource, a detailed index is included in the back, along with a selected bibliography. (Author/SG)

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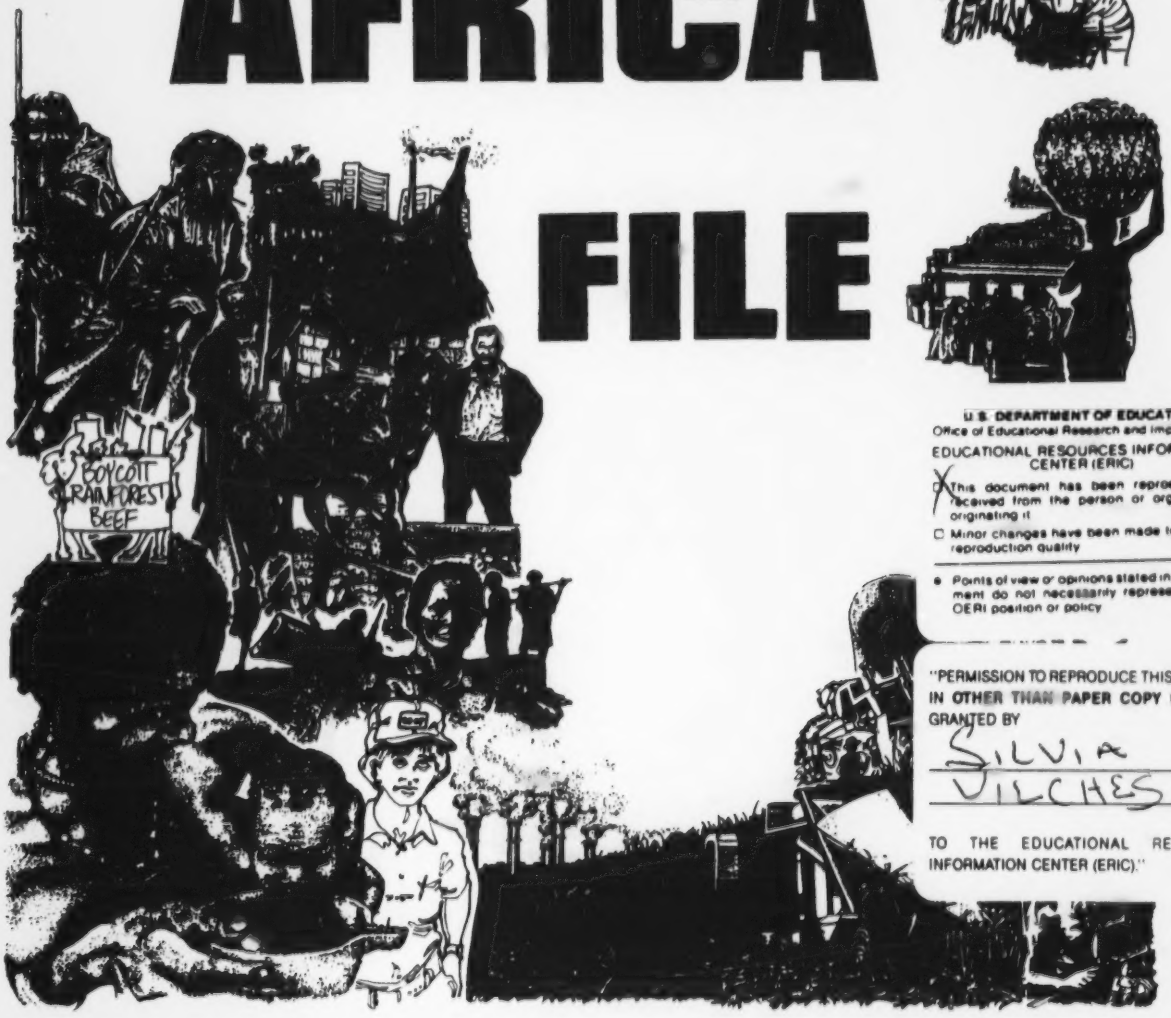
the AFRICA FILE



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Notes, Quotes and Questions About Africa and Development

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Notes, Quotes and Questions
About Africa and Development

THE AFRICA FILE

Text & Layout by Susan Gage
Illustrations by Don McNair,
Westcoast Development Group

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The Africa File

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The Africa File

A Teacher Overview

The Africa File is about Africa—but not only about Africa. While focusing largely on African development, it challenges students to examine Canadian development. While discussing issues in an African context, it challenges students to consider a wider, global context. Africa, with its history of colonialism, its fragile soil, its expanding population, its struggle to provide its people with the basic means of existence, illustrates very starkly the development problems and choices which face the world.

The Africa File is divided into ten parts, each including the following:

- ⋆ table of contents;
- ⋆ student background information: short, readable selections, clippings, tables, quotes and thought-provoking questions;
- ⋆ student activities: simulations, group activities, essay topics, graphing activities;
- ⋆ teacher notes: an overview of the unit, key concepts, and related audio-visual resources. Most of the audio-visual resources listed are National Film Board films and videos, as these are available across Canada.

The Africa File is designed as a potpourri of resources for teachers. Individual units stand on their own, and teachers will want to pick out the sections which most closely link with their curricula. To help teachers use this resource, a detailed index is included at the back, along with a selected bibliography.

OVERVIEW

(For a more detailed listing of contents, see the contents at the beginning of each unit, or the index at the back.)

I. THE UNITS:

Part 1: What is Development?

Development & Africa

- Introduction to Development and World Inequity
- Introduction to Africa

Part 2: Who Drew Up the Pattern?

Colonialism & After

- Colonialism: What it Was; How It Continues to Affect African Development
- Two Models of Development: Kenya and Tanzania
- The Militarization of Africa

Part 3: What Happens When Colonialism Persists?

South Africa

- South Africa at Home and Abroad
- Where Does Canada Stand?

Part 4: Why is Africa Poor?

Trade, Aid and Debt

- Problems of Commodity-Dependence and Debt
- The role of the World Bank and the IMF
- Aid: What's Good Aid? Bad Aid?

Part 5: Why is Africa Hungry?

Food, Water & Health

- Problems of African Farmers (and Canadian farmers, too)
- Attempts at Solving the Food Problem: Food Aid, Green Revolution, Rural Self-help
- Water: What is Appropriate Water Provision?
- Health: Primary Health Care
- Dumping on the Third World: a Look at First World Exports

Part 6: What are We Doing to the Earth?

Environment

- Deforestation and Desertification in Africa
- The Disappearing Rainforest
- The First World Affects the Third: Dumping, the Greenhouse Effect, the Ozone Layer
- Sustainable Development: A World Problem

Part 7: Why Do They Keep Having Children?

Population

- Africa's High Fertility Rate: The Reasons
- Urbanization: The Causes, the Solutions
- Refugees

Part 8: What Rights Should Everyone Have?

The Human Factor:
Human Rights, Women, & Education

- What Are Human Rights? How Many Africans Have Them?
- Women and Human Rights, in Africa and Elsewhere
- Education: A Basic Human Right?

Part 9: Can Government Policies Make a Difference?

Sudan & Zimbabwe

- Sudan: From Breadbasket to Basket Case — How Did It Happen?
- Zimbabwe: From Basket Case to Breadbasket — How Did It Happen?

Part 10: What Can I Do?

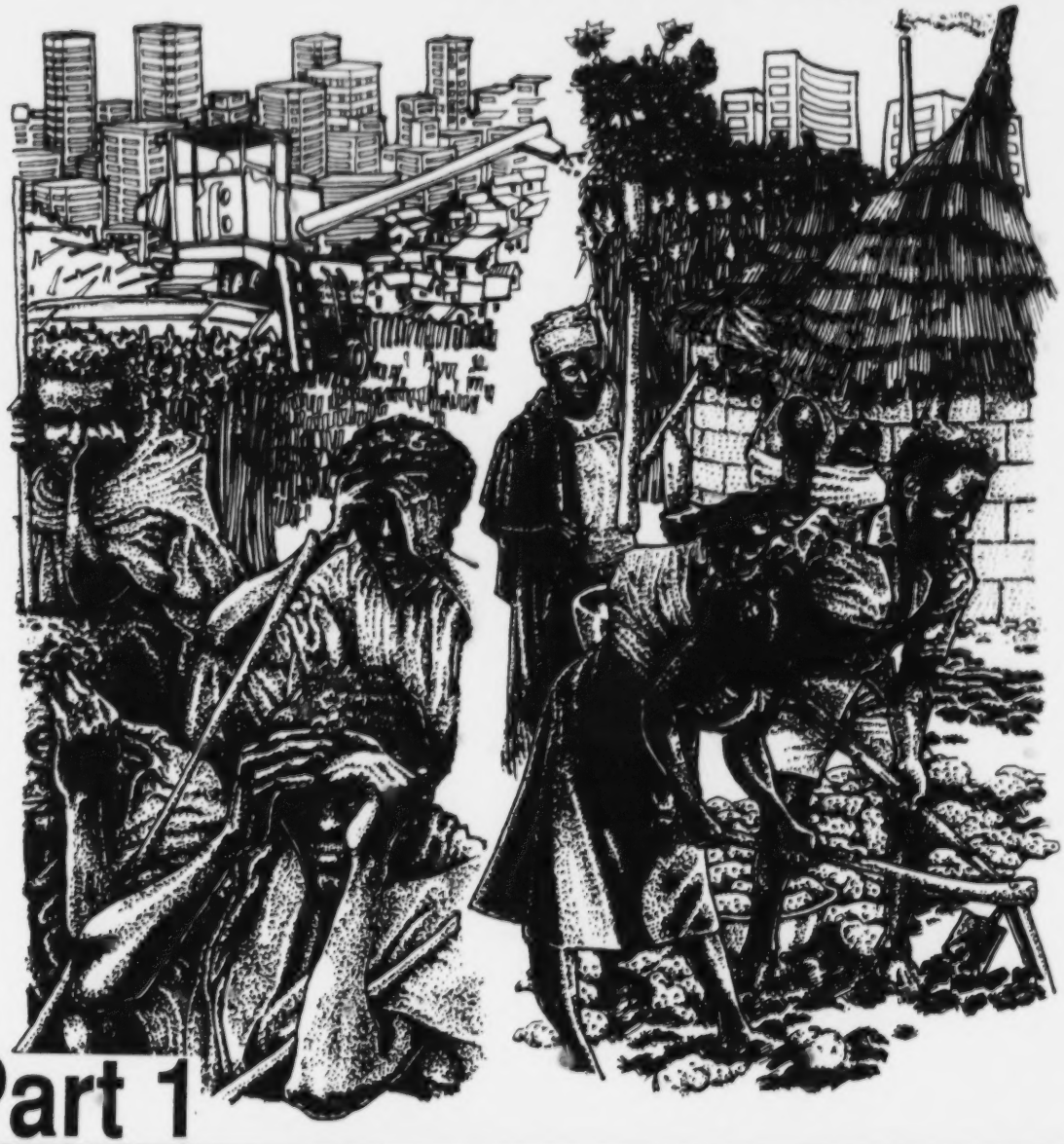
The Future and You

- Ways to Help Yourself, Africa and the World: Keeping Informed/ Supporting NGOs/ Writing Letters/ Examining Lifestyles/ Consuming Conscientiously/ Being a Sensitive Tourist/ Volunteering in Development
- People and Groups Making a Difference: 3 Examples
- Useful Addresses: Learner Centres and Other Agencies

II. SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY i

III. INDEX ..... ii - v

What is Development?



Part 1

DEVELOPMENT & AFRICA

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contents

PART 1: Development & Africa

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Development 1-4

An Introductory Glossary:
- North/South; First World/Third World; Developed World/Developing World 5
- Measures of Development: GNP, GDP, IMR, Life Expectancy, Literacy Rate ... 6
- Sustainable Development / Maldevelopment 6

The Haves & the Have-Nots (World Inequities:)
- North/South 7
- Class 8
- Rural/Urban 8-9
- Gender 9

Positive and Negative Signs:
- Things Are Not Getting Any Better 9
- But Maybe We're Learning 9

Development & Africa:
- Why Focus on Africa? 10
- Africa: a Geographic Fly-over 11
- Africa's Regions 11
- Different Worlds (African/Canadian Statistics) 11

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 12-14

TEACHER NOTES 15

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 16

DEVELOPMENT

Alice: "Could you tell me please which way I ought to go from here?"
Cheshire Cat: "That depends a good deal on where you want to get to."
(Lewis Carroll, Alice In Wonderland)

FIRST WORLD DUMPS ON THIRD WORLD

The developed world is looking for a place to dump its toxic waste. Guinea-Bissau, with a per capita GNP of $170 (US) and a life expectancy of 39 years, has agreed to accept 15 million tonnes of toxic waste from the U.S. and Europe, for a sum of $120,000,000 (US) a sum almost equal to its GNP.

Disposable Camera Hits Market

Winner Takes All

In 1985 the poorest fifth of the world's population had less than 2% of the total world economic product, while the richest fifth had 74% of it.

(Sivard, World Social and Military Expenditures 1987-88)

Dropping off by the Minute

24 people die every minute from hunger-related these deaths are children under five. *(CIDA, S our Future)*

Vanishing Species

The earth is losing its rainforest at a rate of 100 acres per minute. Every half hour, a species is wiped off the face of the earth.

(Information Sources: Tropical Rainforest Press Brief, Tree of Life, New Internationalist, June 1988)

Behind Garfield's Grin

The average British cat eats twice as much animal protein every day as the average African. The cost of keeping that cat—about $255 per year—is more than the average annual income of the 1 billion people who live in the world's fifteen poorest nations.

(Information from Timberlake, Only One Earth, p. 13)

An alien being landing on planet earth at the end of the 1980s might read a Canadian newspaper—if he could read, that is—with a high degree of bewilderment. Articles on floods, famines and wars in the south of this planet, he finds, are interspersed with articles on environmental problems in the north. While the populations of Sudan and Bangladesh lose their homes and lives to floods, Toronto desperately seeks an answer to its garbage problem, the people of Victoria begin to build a giant "interceptor"

to pump raw sewage into the Strait of Georgia, and a doctor in Tofino is jailed for his civil disobedience campaign to prevent logging roads from cutting into the forests surrounding his community. In addition, many earthlings seem worried that there is a hole in a layer of their atmosphere—something called the ozone layer—and the whole planet appears to be heating up. Between the articles are advertisements—advertisements for disposable plastic-lined baby diapers, for fast-food hamburgers encased in styrofoam containers, and for long, shiny cars.

Our alien isn't any more confused than a lot of us. Questions like

Why are people in the South so poor?

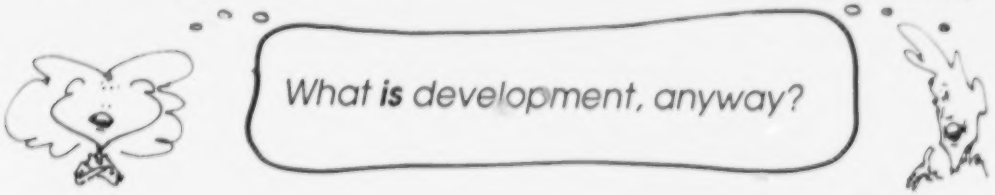
Why do people in the North have so many environmental problems?

Where is the earth heading?

What can I do to help turn this crazy mess around?

are floating around in increasing numbers.

We earthlings, and particularly those of us who live in the northern, wealthier, part of the planet, are realizing that, if our planet is to survive, we're going to have to look closely at the structures and attitudes which have led to our present problems, and see what we can do to change them. In particular, we need to look at the long string of choices which has led us to where we are now. The people of the world didn't suddenly wake up to find their forests diminishing rapidly, their water and air threatened with pollution, and 700 million of their number suffering from malnutrition. These conditions have come about gradually, through a series of choices about **development**.



When we hear the word "development" on the radio, or read it in the newspaper, it often refers to a housing complex, a shopping centre, or an application for rezoning in our community.

CLIPPING 1

Multiple-family development blocked

By Carolyn Heiman
Times-Colonist staff

A room full of angry Gonzales Hill-area residents voted overwhelmingly Monday against any multiple-family developments on an undeveloped pocket of land.

"We don't want multiple-family housing to get in," one man said, summarizing the feelings of the majority of approximately 120 people attending a meeting called by developer Kevin Weaver.

He, like many others who spoke at the meeting at Margaret Jenkins Elementary School, expressed concern that agreement to change the zoning on one parcel of land in the area would be followed by similar requests for other Gonzales Hill properties.

But despite the vote and the evident hostility at the meeting, Weaver said following the meeting: "I'm going to try to convince people that this [a multiple-family development] is more esthetically pleasing [than a single-family housing development]."....

(Times-Colonist, Sept 13, 1988)

CLIPPING 2

How debt chokes development

By Tony Hawkins

Although Africa's external debt problem has not reached Latin American proportions, the fact remains that the foreign borrowings of low-income Africa grew faster in the 1970s and early 80s than those of Latin America, with some countries increasing their debt more than tenfold....

Africa desperately needs more imports, not just of the investment goods that it cannot itself produce and which are central to any growth strategy, but also of spares for maintenance purposes, fuels, raw materials and intermediate items for manufacturing industry and essential consumer goods. *(Africa Recovery, May 1987)*

Clipping 1 describes a meeting in which community residents express different ideas about what kind of development they want for their area. There is an undeveloped pocket of land; how should it be developed? What are the choices available to the residents and the city council?

"I think we should stick to single family dwellings. That way we don't get too many people in, and we don't have our sea view blocked by a big high apartment building."

"Single family dwellings are a luxury which most people can no longer afford. A well-designed apartment or condominium would make maximum use of scarce city land."

"If I can get this through, I'll make enough money to retire."

"Why do we have to have anything on that land? I can remember climbing up the rocks and playing there when I was a kid. I'd like my kids to be able to enjoy that land as a park. Sure, it would be expensive! But the city seems to have money for other things."

"A large development would bring more taxes into the area, but it would also increase the pressure on the roads and the schools in the area."

The people at this meeting will have different perspectives on the desirability of different types of development. Can you identify some of the concerns and interests of a neighbourhood resident? a prospective developer? a city councillor?

In some ways, the meaning of "development" in **Clipping 2** seems to have little relation to the meaning of "development" in Clipping 1. Here we've moved from local development to international development. "Development" here means the creation of factories and processing plants. It means agricultural development — the expansion and upgrading of crops with machines and irrigation projects. It means building dams to harness energy to run factories to employ people to produce exports to....

Hey, wait!

??????

Supposing those people don't want a dam? Perhaps they'd rather live without a factory. They might have other priorities for their development!

Here we've hit the cruncher! In the past couple of decades, as the terms "development" and "developing countries" have come into vogue, we've made certain assumptions. We've assumed that everyone wanted to follow the same path, a path based on industrialization—a path rather like the one which we'd followed in North America and Europe. In the past few years, however, we've begun to realize that development is not just about dams, factories and and tractors. It's about **people**. Just as people in Victoria, B.C. have conflicting perspectives on what sort of development is best for their community, so people in the developing world have differing ideas on what development plan is best for them. If there's only a limited amount of money to be spent, where should it go? Into a few large projects–mega-dams to irrigate thousands of acres, urban hospitals, large modern factories? Or into small-scale community projects such as health clinics or community irrigation projects? Often the people who make the decisions are not the people who are most affected by them. Take the building of a factory, for instance....

"A factory will mean jobs. My sons need jobs so badly!"

"If this factory produces plastic bowls, who's going to buy my clay pots?"

"It's so much money! If you spent that money helping farmers in the country, you could easily grow enough food for everyone."

"What about pollution? I've heard about Bhopal, in India, where people were poisoned by a toxic accident. We don't have anti-pollution laws to protect us like some of the developed countries have."

"We'll have to import machinery from the North. Our debt will get even bigger, and our taxes will go up to pay the interest rates. Already we don't have money to buy enough food for our families."

"Our country needs to modernize. I'm tired of us being called "backward" by people from the West."

"My company can do well out of this project. We can sell them machinery, send in advisors to get them going, and keep providing parts for years ahead. This kind of project is good for all of us — my country, and the developing country."

Can you pick out the concerns of the farmer, the urban dweller, the politician, the First World businessman?

In any kind of development, whether it's development in our local community, or development in other parts of the world, we can ask some of the same questions:

What are the different points of view?

Who is most likely to hold which point of view?

What reasons might influence their view?

Who are the people who will profit most from this development?

Who are the people who will lose the most, or who will pay the most if things don't work out well?

Who will get to have a say in the decision? Who won't?

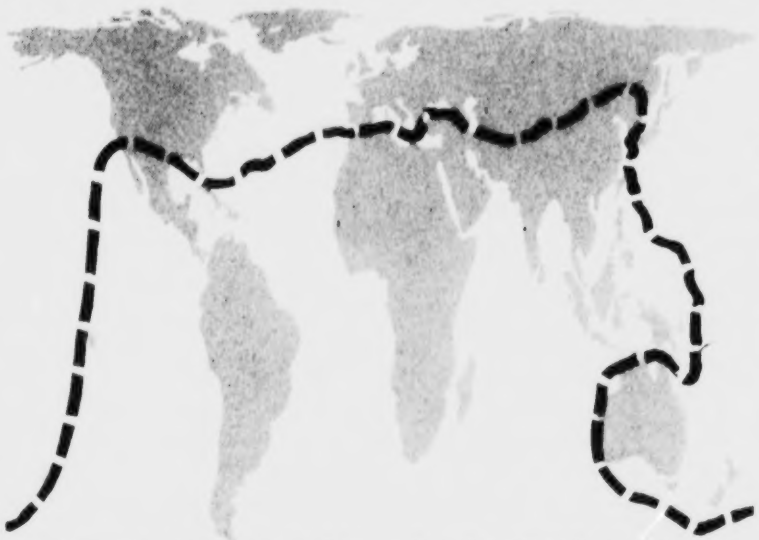
The rest of this book deals with many different areas of development. In all these areas—trade, debt, population, food production, environmental sustainability—we will try to assess what has worked well, what has gone wrong, what changes need to be made to lead us all—both the North and the South—towards long-term, sustainable development. But in all our assessments, we'll be asking these same questions: who profits? who pays? what are the different points of view on this particular development issue, and why?

AN INTRODUCTORY GLOSSARY

North/South First-World /Third-World Developed World / Developing World

These three terms are all different ways of referring to "the great divide". If you look at a map of the world, you can see that, with the exception of Australia and New Zealand, most of the countries in the southern half of the map are poor. The term "Third World", which is often used to describe these countries, was first coined by the French demographer, Alfred Sauvy, and can be translated as the "third estate", or "third party"— the people who were left out when the colonial powers were developing the world. There is also a Second World—Northern countries with socialist, centrally-planned economies such as the Soviet Union and East Germany—and recently some development authorities have added the term "fourth world", composed of the countries with the *least* developed economies.

People in the South often don't like being referred to as the Third World. They point out that their countries can't all be lumped together as a homogeneous mass; each of the countries in the developing world is unique.



Map: Peters Projection ©CWDE

While this is true, some basic characteristics of Third World or developing countries still prevail:

★ a relatively low GNP (or average income);
★ a relatively high proportion of the population working in agriculture;
★ a relatively high rate of population growth;
★ a relatively low life expectancy, and high rate of infant mortality;
★ a relatively low rate of literacy, and a smaller percentage of young people in schooling and training at all levels.

For a clearer look at what these characteristics really mean, in terms of people's lives, read *What a Difference a Hemisphere Makes*, p. 7, and *Different Worlds*, p. 11.

In this book, the terms *Third World*, *South*, and *Developing World* will be used interchangeably to refer to the world's poorer countries.

SELECTED STATISTICS:

	IMR	Life Expect.	GNP/ Capita	Pop. per Doctor	% pop. with safe water	% School-aged pop. in school	Energy/ capita consumed (kilogr. oil equiv.)
CANADA	9	76	13,250	508	100	80	8,945
U.S.	11	75	15,541	474	100	77	7,193
E. GERMANY	11	72	7,995	450	90	59	5,915
SWEDEN	6	77	12,357	403	100	61	6,374
ETHIOPIA	168	43	113	76,569	56	19	21
NIGERIA	129	50	767	11,223	36	46	134
KENYA	61	54	322	9,389	27	62	100
TANZANIA	111	51	328	19,388	52	44	35
ZAMBIA	100	52	527	7,256	48	56	381
MEXICO	51	66	3,027	1,110	74	69	1,235
INDIA	104	54	266	2,550	54	46	208

(Statistics from World Bank, World Development Report 1988, and Sivard, World Military and Social Expenditures 1987-88)

Measures of Development:

Measuring a country's standard of living is a difficult business. The four indicators which are most frequently used are GNP or GDP, IMR, Life Expectancy, and Literacy Rate.

GNP

The GNP, or Gross National Product, is the measure most often used in calculating the wealth of a country. It is the total value of goods and services produced within a country, together with payments received from other countries, minus payments made to other countries. Often the figure is given as the ***per capita GNP***, the approximate amount which each person earns per year. But ***approximate*** is a key word here. In some countries, there is greater disparity than in others. In Brazil, the wealthiest 20% of the population earn more than 30 times as much as the poorest 20% (World Bank, 1983). What does an "average income" figure mean in this situation? While a GNP figure is useful to give us a very general idea of the average wealth of a country, it's important to look behind that figure to see how the wealth is distributed within that country. C. Rajendra, a Malaysian poet, expressed the danger of an "average" number in his poem *Statistics*, to the right. ***GDP*** — Gross Domestic Product — is a similar figure, the difference being a technical one in calculating interest and wages earned abroad.

IMR

The IMR, or Infant Mortality Rate, tells us how many babies per thousand will die before they reach their first birthday.

Life Expectancy

This is another measure of the quality of life. Because this figure is an average one which includes the infants who die, countries which have a high IMR will probably have a low life expectancy, even though some people in that country will live to a ripe old age.

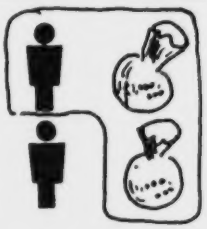
Literacy Rate

This rate shows the percentage of people in a given population who can read and write.

Sustainable Development

This term is one which has crept into the vocabulary only in the last few years, as we have begun to see how quickly poorly planned development has degraded the environment of the Third World, and as we are beginning to realize the magnitude of the side-effects of industrialization – pollution, deforestation, erosion – on the environment of the Third World. Twenty years ago, we thought that we could all go on consuming more and more. We now realize that that is impossible. If the people of the South, who presently use just over one-sixth the amount of energy used by the North, were to "progress" to Northern standards and all start driving cars, we would quickly use up all our oil reserves, and the CO_2 level would rise to hazardous levels. Sustainable development refers to development which doesn't disrupt ecological systems or over-exploit natural resources.

The term ***maldevelopment*** is sometimes used to describe non-sustainable development, particularly in the First World. The aerosol can, or plastic milk-jug, might be considered examples of maldevelopment.



STATISTICS
Statistically
it was a rich island
income per capita
one million
per annum

Naturally
it was a shock to hear
half of population
had been carried off
by starvation
Statistically
it was a rich island

A UN Delegation
(hurriedly despatched)
discovered however
a smallish island
with a total population
of – 2
Both inhabitants
regretably
not each a millionaire
as we'd presumed
But one the island owner
Income per annum:
Two million
The other
his cook/chauffeur
shoeshine boy/butler
gardener/retainer
handyman/labourer
etc. etc.
The very same
recently remaindered
by malnutrition

Statistically it was a rich island
Income per capita
per annum
one million

(C. Rajendra, Malaysian poet)
*Quoted In DEC, **People Before Places?***
Birmingham: Development Education Centre, 1985

THE HAVES & THE HAVE-NOTS

Whether you are a have or a have-not depends on a whole lot of factors: the hemisphere in which you were born, your class, your sex, and whether you live in the country or the city.

WHAT A DIFFERENCE A HEMISPHERE MAKES:
NORTH-SOUTH INEQUITY

In mid-1987, Earth passed the 5-billion mark in population. Because of the difficulty of counting up the numbers exactly, it's uncertain whether this 5 billionth baby was born in the North or the South. But this single factor—where he is born—will probably be the single most important factor in deciding what kind of a life Baby 5 Billion will have.

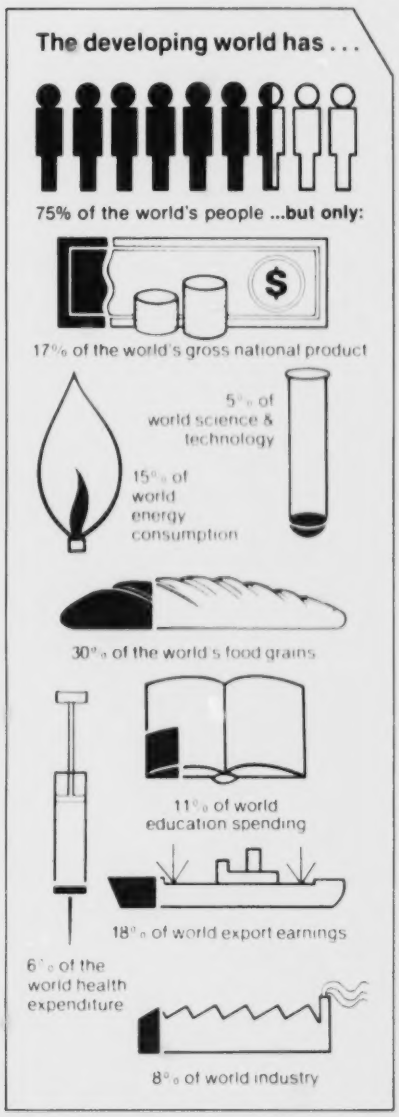
If Baby 5 Billion was lucky enough to be one of the 1.2 billion people living in the North, this is what his future will probably be like:

- He will almost certainly live past the age of five. Of the 18 million children who die each year before age 5, 97% were born in the South. He will have a 99% chance of being literate, and will be educated in a classroom with 25 students to a teacher.
- He will probably live until he is 75 years old, make an income of $11,000 (U.S.) per year, and live in a city.

If, however, Baby 5 Billion was one of the 3.8 billion people living in the South, however, her future will look quite different.

- She may not last very long. Of the 125 million children born each year, 14.5% die before they are 5, most of them in the South. She may well die, or become permanently disabled, because of an easily-preventable disease, like polio or measles; every two seconds, a child either dies or is permanently disabled by one of these diseases.
- If she survives, she will have a 50% chance of starting school, and a 20% chance of completing the elementary grades, where she will be instructed in a classroom with 52 other children.
- Her chances of being hungry most of the time are about 25%; if she lives in a rural area, which is likely, she has a 44% chance of having access to safe drinking water, and a 15% chance of having adequate sanitary facilities.
- She can expect to live until she is 59 years old, and her yearly income will be $755 (U.S.) per year.

(World Bank 1984 figures)


The developing world has . . .
75% of the world's people ...but only:
17% of the world's gross national product
5% of world science & technology
15% of world energy consumption
30% of the world's food grains
11% of world education spending
18% of world export earnings
6% of the world health expenditure
8% of world industry

Courtesy of Ten Days for World Development

Cartoon reprinted from FAO, Ideas & Action 164

POVERTY AMIDST PLENTY...AND VICE VERSA

CLASS INEQUITY

However, as was discussed before, under GNP (p. 6), Baby 5 Billion could end up in a Third World country and find himself whisked around in a Mercedes and cossetted by his nanny. Or, conversely, he could easily be born into a poor family in the First World and find himself surrounded by poverty. The distribution of wealth in different countries can either create large pockets of poverty amidst wealth, or can distribute a more equal standard of living to all of its citizens.

Let's look at two countries which both have similar average GNPs per capita, India and China. Because of the way in which wealth is distributed in these two countries, a baby born in China will have more chance of surviving, and will probably live longer, than a baby born in India.

	India		China	
	Infant mortality	Life expectancy	Infant Mortality	Life expectancy
1960	165	43	161	41
1982	94	54	67	67
% change	-43	+25	-59	+63

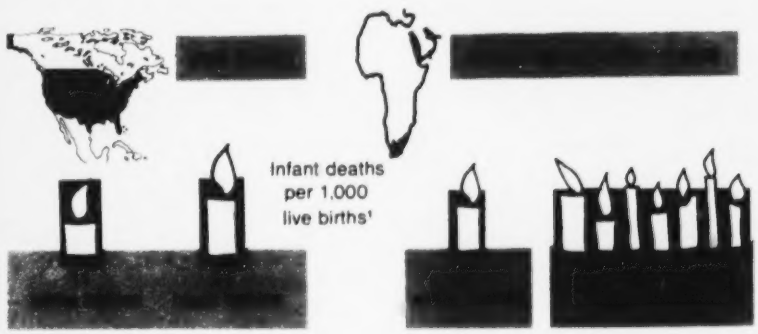
(Source: World Bank, 1984 Quoted in Susan George, Introduction to *The Hunger Machine*. Toronto: CBC Enterprises, 1987)

The clipping and graphics below give a grim picture of what it's like to be poor and black in the United States or in South Africa.

US child poverty grows

Poverty among US children has been growing steadily for the past 20 years. In New York in particular it is reaching crisis proportions. One in every four US children under the age of six lives in poverty. The greatest victims continue to be among minority groups such as blacks and Hispanics, and among single and unwed mothers.

(From Action for Children Newsletter, no 5, quoted in New Internationalist, Dec. 1986)



New Internationalist October 1986

MEANWHILE, BACK ON THE RANCH...

RURAL/URBAN INEQUITY

When we see pictures of small round huts, and people hoeing the land, we often tend to idealize rural life. But Baby 5 Billion can count himself lucky if he's born in a city. Rural poverty may be more picturesque than urban poverty, but it's even harder on its victims. According to the World Bank, 90% of the world's hungry people live in the countryside.

Rural people have less access to clean water, sanitation, and education than the people who live in cities. This is often the result of urban bias in governments; government officials are usually urban people themselves, are not familiar with the problems of rural dwellers, and are sensitive to the needs of the urban poor who, if they are starving, can riot and possibly even overturn the government.

Rural poverty is particularly evident at certain times of year; malnutrition, illness and death are particularly likely to strike during the lean months that precede the harvest, or during the rainy season when food stocks may be at their lowest and food prices at their highest. People may be required to work hardest in the fields just when they have the least energy. From Bangladesh to Africa, all the available research shows that IMRs are worst at the end of the rainy season and in the pre-harvest period.

LET'S HEAR IT FOR THE LITTLE LADY....

GENDER INEQUITY

Finally, Baby 5 Billion had better hope he has the right number of x and y chromozomes, and is born a male. Girl babies are biologically stronger than boys, so at birth and earliest infancy, girls' death rates are often lower than boys'. But then discrimination takes over. A study in Bangladesh showed that small boys got 16% more food than girls; men between 15 and 45 got 29% more than their wives. But food is only the beginning; two illiterate people out of every three are women. Women work two-thirds of all the hours worked in the world, but they get only one-tenth of the income and own a mere one-hundredth of the property.

And, what is more,

THINGS ARE NOT GETTING ANY BETTER

"There are more poor and hungry people today than at any time since the human species evolved. In 1980, some 730 million people in 87 developing nations were not receiving sufficient food to enable them to lead active working lives. A decade earlier, the figure was slightly over 600 million. ...Although during the 1970s the percentage of hungry people in these nations had actually fallen from 40 to 34 per cent, population growth overwhelmed percentage improvements in the food availability." (Timberlake, ***Only One Earth.*** *London: BBC Books/Earthscan, 1987)*

"Each year more people are without safe water supplies. In 1975, 1.23 billion people in the South were without clean water; by 1980, the figure had increased to 1.32 billion." *(Timberlake, Only One Earth, 1987)*

In North-South terms, the rich are getting richer, and the poor are getting poorer. In 1950, the GNP of the 18 industrialized countries was twenty-three times that of the 38 least developed countries. By 1980, the ratio had become 40:1. *(World Bank figures)*

BUT MAYBE WE'RE LEARNING

Sometimes it takes a crisis to make anything happen. The recent series of famines and droughts on the African continent so starkly illustrated to the people of the North the need for change that change has, at last, begun to take place. Northern governments and aid agencies are examining their assumptions about appropriate development, and struggling to become more environmentally-conscious and smaller-scale. Canada, for instance, is targetting a greater amount of its aid towards the very poorest countries, and emphasizing a "basic needs" approach which will benefit the poorest within those countries.

People in the North are also beginning to re-assess their own style of development and to ask some important questions about environmental sustainability. The summer of '88, when in Toronto smog levels reached a point where industries were asked to close down, when in Quebec a PCB fire alerted Canadians to the fact that toxic waste was being stored all around them, might be a summer to remember in terms of a new environmental agenda. Opinion polls began to show that Canadians ranked environmental concern as being a major priority; political parties quickly began to emphasize environment in their platforms.

In the following sections of this kit, we'll be examining plenty of disasters, but we'll also be looking at some recent hopeful signs which signal that the future does not have to mirror the past.

Development & Africa:—
WHY FOCUS ON AFRICA?

"Out of Africa there is always something new."
-Pliny the Elder, A.D. 23 to 79

When we think of Africa, many of us picture a huge desert of sand, inhabited by starving, hopeless people. We've been bombarded by the T.V.-promoted equation: Africa=famine. In mid-1985, the world suddenly became aware that Africa was in trouble. Twenty-four countries, from the Sahel region to southern Africa, were struggling with serious food shortages. The lives of 35 million people were in danger. Thousands died quietly; millions struggled to refugee camps to line up for meagre portions of food dispensed by international relief agencies.

While the television coverage gave a clear picture of the human misery resulting from the famine, its explanation of the causes of the tragedy was fuzzy and unfocused. Was all this happening because the rains didn't come in 1985? Would all this be remedied by a few good cloudbursts?

What has now become evident is that the 1985 crisis was the result of many years of disastrous development. Africa's ability to feed itself has been deteriorating since the late 1960s; its living standards have been declining since the 1970s. The droughts and famines which we attribute to lack of rainfall are really caused by a long chain of human mistakes. What is more, many of the mistakes have been made not by Africans, but by westerners, who thought that they knew what was best for Africa.

Africa's countries have been independent for less than 30 years. From the outset, Africans have struggled to find a path to development which would take some ideas from the industrialized west, but would be distinctively African.

AFRICA TODAY
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

"Here we stand poised between two civilisations. Backward? To days of drum and festal dances in the shade of sun-kist palms. Or Forward? Toward? The factory, the slums, where man is dumped upon man?"

(Dei-Anang, Ghana)

"Development is the creation of adequate supplies of food, clothing, medical supplies and shelter... in a manner consonant with the material, cultural and psychological needs of the people concerned as they define them."

(Julius Nyerere, first president of Tanzania)

When we look at the struggle of Third World nations to provide food, clothing, medical supplies and shelter to their people, we realize that Africa's problems are not all unique to Africa. The factors which have contributed to Africa's current crisis are present in many other developing regions. Colonialism, militarism, international trade practices favouring rich countries, environmental destruction, neglect of rural development: these root causes of underdevelopment are spread throughout the Third World, from the Philippines to Bangladesh to Fiji.

The First World, as well, is beginning to re-assess some of its current patterns of development. Perhaps we in Canada can learn some development lessons from Africa. All of us, all the time, are making choices in the kinds of development our countries will pursue. Often, we don't think too clearly about just what we are developing **towards**, where we are headed in the long term.

When we study Africa, we study the world. When we understand the mistakes which have been made in Africa's development, and the changes which must be made for Africa to achieve a full life for all her people, we will be able to look at world development, and Canadian development, more clearly.

AFRICA: A GEOGRAPHIC FLY-OVER

Africa is the second-largest continent in the world (about three-quarters the size of Asia, and one and a quarter times the size of North America). While we tend to think of all of Africa as being the more-or-less the same, Africa is really very diverse, both culturally and geographically. Her 53 countries contain over 1,000 cultural groups and 2,000 different language groups. African countries range in size from the Sudan, which contains over 2 1/2 million square km. to the Seychelles, which contain 404 square km.; in population from Nigeria, with over 100 million inhabitants (about four times the population of Canada), to Sao Tome and Principe, with 100,000 people (just less than Victoria).

The climate and vegetation of Africa vary from tropical rainforest, which gets 1500 mm or more of rain a year (Vancouver gets 1203 mm), to the Sahara Desert, which gets less than 200 mm per year. In between those extremes are the semi-humid and semi-arid regions.

Added to climatic diversity by area, Africa must deal with great climatic diversity by season, an all-or-nothing syndrome. Most of Africa, outside the rainforests, receives very little rain for most of the year, and long stretches of very hard rain during a few months. Sokoto, in northern Nigeria, gets 100 mm more rain per year on average than London, England (one of the umbrella-capitals of the world), but gets almost all of it in July, August and September.

AFRICA'S REGIONS

Africa is so big it's sometimes broken down into smaller regions.

North Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa:

The 6 countries of North Africa — Western Sahara, Morocco, Algeria, Libya, Egypt, and Tunisia — are often considered to be more linked to the Middle East than to the rest of the African continent. Much of the discussion in this kit will exclude North Africa, which is generally the richer part of Africa, and concentrate on the rest—Sub-Saharan Africa— the countries south of the Sahara Desert.

As well as the obvious way of dividing up Sub-Saharan Africa—West Africa, East Africa, Central Africa and Southern Africa—there are two other terms which you will often see when reading about Africa:

The Sahel:

Sahel means "desert's edge", and is just that—the countries along the under-edge of the Sahara. They are Mauritania, Senegal, The Gambia, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Chad.

The Horn of Africa:

When you look at a map, you'll see where this area got its name. It includes Sudan, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Somalia and Kenya.

DIFFERENT WORLDS

If you had been born an average African, instead of a Canadian, life would look very different:

★ your country would be one-seventeenth as wealthy as Canada (Canada's GNP per capita is U.S. $12,310, compared to U.S. $742 for Africa, and U.S. $210 for sub-Saharan Africa),

★ there would be one-seventh as much land per person,

★ you would have one chance in three of drinking safe water,

★ you would only use 4% as much energy,

★ you would have one chance in five of owning a radio, and one in 50 of owning a television,

★ your children would be 12 times as likely to die of infant diseases; you would have one-nineteenth the chance of seeing a doctor,

★ $47 per year would be spent on your health care and education, instead of $1,299 (health—Africa $8, Canada $515; education—Africa $39, Canada $784). *(CIDA, Development)*

ACTIVITIES:

1. What Is Development?

Read pages 1 to 9. Then, working in groups, read through the following statements and pick out the two statements you agree with most, and the two statements you disagree with most. Be prepared to defend your choice in a class general discussion

a) Development is economic growth measured in terms of the improvement in GNP per capita.

b) Development is sharing of the world's wealth more equitably between the rich and poor nations. It is sharing our world.

c)Development means the replacing of traditional cultural values with modern values, such as efficiency and mechanisation.

d) Development is supporting people who are already working to help themselves.

e) Development is the attempt to ensure that, as nations increase their production, there is a better distribution of wealth, so that every person has his or her basic needs met.

f) Development is a movement towards the destruction of life on the planet earth.

g) Development means replacing human and animal labour with labour-saving machinery.

h) Development allows people to participate in making choices about the direction they want their society to go towards.

i) Development means getting people away from working on the farm and into more interesting jobs.

j) Development means educating everyone to secondary level.

k) Development means making more consumer goods available to people.

2. Development Means Different Things for Different People:

Think of examples of recent or proposed local development in your community or your province (e.g. downtown development, building a shopping mall, expanding a highway, building a marina, logging or mining an area of forest, hosting a world exposition, etc.). Working in groups, choose one of these examples to work on. Follow these steps in order to analyse the factors underlying this particular development:

a) **Stakeholders:** Make a list of all the different groups of people who have an interest or involvement in this development. We'll call these people "stakeholders".

b) Beside each stakeholder, write the point of view which he/she/they will likely take towards the development, and some of the reasons for their point of view. Pay particular attention to the questions: Who profits from this development? Who pays? If money is to be paid by the community or the government, what other ways might this money be spent which might benefit different groups of people?

c) Assign to each person in your group the role of a particular stakeholder. Pretend that you are all present at a community hearing where the decision will be made about this development, and spend 5 to 10 minutes discussing the issue from your differing perspectives.

d) Change roles: You are now the council which must make a decision. What decision will be the most fair? You will want to consider who will be most affected in the short and the long term, whose opinion should receive most weight, what will be the effects, both short and long term, for your community in economic, ecological, and social terms.

NOW, LET'S MOVE THIS SCENE TO THE THIRD WORLD:

Here is a brief description of the Bakolori Dam project, begun in 1978 in northern Nigeria as part of an agricultural thrust to improve food self-sufficiency by irrigating 30,000 hectares of land.

THE BAKOLORI SCHEME

The Bakolori Scheme lies in an a semi-arid area, in which the rainfall is confined to 3 to 4 months of the year, the period in which all cultivation has been done. It was decided to capture the heavy rainfall during the

wet season and store it for use in the dry season, when it could be used for irrigation. Because this was an extremely costly project, it was necessary to encourage the farmers to plant high-value crops like tomatoes, rather than their traditional crops like sorghum and cassava.

The reservoir site was densely inhabited; several thousand people were to be resettled in resettlement villages, and paid compensation for their land. However, various problems led to the construction of haphazard villages, houses which collapsed, and the delay of compensation payments. The farmers living in the irrigation area were initially told that their land would be irrigated by the next rainy season, but there were delays here, too, and some farmers were without their land for several years.

The following article was published in the *New Nigerian*, Nigeria's major newspaper, in February, 1980:

Angry Farmers Halt Work on N200M. Dam

Angry farmers have halted work at the 200 million naira Bakolori Dam near Talata Mafara in Sokoto State.

Reports reaching us from Sokoto said the farmers have blocked all entrances to the dam site with huge stones and logs of wood and formed an impregnable picket line. They numbered over 5000....

The spokesmen said about 800,000 farmers were affected and complained that both their houses and farms have been taken over for the dam on the pretext that they would be fully compensated in two weeks time. "The two weeks have extended to three years and we are now fed up with the promises," they said.. "Look at our number here, many of us have parted ways with our families owing to poverty and hunger, a situation imposed on us by our fellow human beings."

They said they were there not to beg for compensation any more or for anybody to plead with them again but to die so that their sufferings could be over....."

(The Bakolori Case Study is based on Dr. W.M. Adams, "Nigeria: choices in agricultural development," in Slater (ed.), People and Environments, London: Collins Educational, 1986)

Now, let's analyse this situation in a manner similar to our analysis of a local development scheme. Let's go back to the time when this project was in the initial planning stages:

a) Who are the stakeholders? (consider government/ farmers/ international lending institutions/ women/ unemployed youths/ contractors, etc.)
b) What different points of view might each have? (concern about increasing food production; concern about feeding their families, rather than producing crops for export; concern about leaving their land; worry about whether the government will keep its promises, etc.) Who stands to profit? Who takes most of the risks?
c) Do a short role-play, arguing out your viewpoints.
d) Take the part of a decision-making board: Whose views should be considered? What will be the short and long-term effects on the community? the country? Is the long-term gain worth the short-term pain? What effect will the spending of these large sums of money have in terms of debt? Is there a more effective way of spending the money?

Follow-up Class Discussion:

FIRST WORLD/THIRD WORLD PARALLELS AND DIFFERENCES

★ How are the two cases alike/ different?
★ Who should be involved in the decision-making?
★ What criteria should be used in deciding what is the best form of development?
★ Is it possible to achieve a good balance between values of social equity and ecology, and at the same time to build large projects?

[It is interesting to note that only in the last decade have most International Development Agencies bothered to involve the people most affected in the planning and implementation of projects,(The term **"grassroots development"** has become increasingly popular in past years). Are there cases in Canada where the people most affected by development decisions have not been consulted?]

3. Bulletin on Development:

Start a class bulletin board or scrapbook to illustrate the over-development/ underdevelopment syndrome. In one area, collect clippings and examples of underdevelopment in the South (and perhaps in your own community), and use the other area for illustrations of maldevelopment (see definition on p. 6).

4. World Lunch:

This lunch simulates First World/Third World wealth and density differences in a way that's hard-hitting, yet fun.

Each student draws a ticket with the name of a region on it. Tables are set up with corresponding regional signs. Population distribution for a group of 30 is as follows:

Africa	3✳
East Europe and USSR	3✳✳
Asia	17
Latin America	2
North America/Western Europe	5

✳ You may want to set one section of the table aside for one white South African, who rates treatment equivalent to the North American/Western Europeans.

The North American/Western European table is given gala treatment: lace tablecloth, candles, and a large lunch from a take-out food restaurant: hamburgers, coke, French fries, etc. — more than enough to feed everyone. Try a picnic lunch—croissants, yoghurt, coke, cookies, etc.—if Macdonalds is too far away. The Third World must line up for rice and fruit, and ladle their water from the village well (a large container of water). The North American/W.E. table may also help themselves to fruit or rice if they wish to.

✳✳ It's hard to know where to put East Europe and USSR, which fit neither with the North American/Western European pattern of overconsumption of resources, nor with the underconsumption of the Third World. A combination plate of rice, fruit, and some additional food like French fries is probably the best solution.)

Discussion after the lunch:

★ How did the Third World feel about this situation? How would they have felt if the situation had continued for days? What would they have done?
★ What about the North Americans/Western Europeans? How did they feel? Respond? If they've consumed a Macdonald's lunch, look at the packaging. Where is this packaging going to go? What damage might it do?

5. Inequity:

You are an African woman. You live in a rural area. You are a member of the lowest class of a country in which there is great variation of wealth.

You have been invited to an International Women's Conference in Canada to speak about your life. Read **The Haves and the Have-Nots** (pages 7 - 9), then prepare your speech, entitled "**An Unequal Among Unequals**".

6. Futures:

Look at **Selected Statistics** (p. 5). Choose Canada, an African country, and another developing country, and develop a "Futures Profile" of a young person in each country. What kind of education, salary, life expectation could you expect in each country? What kind of possessions, leisure activity, and work would you expect to have in each situation?

7. "Progress":

Construct a graph plotting the per capita energy consumption and the per capita GNP for each of the countries listed in "Selected Statistics"(p.5). Make the vertical axis represent energy consumption per capita, ranging from 0 to 10,000 kilograms (oil equivalent), and the horizontal axis represent GNP per capita, from $0 to $20,000. Locate and label the positions of each of the 11 countries. What relationship do you see between these two statistics? What problem does this relationship suggest? Which factor causes which, in your opinion?

Part 1: DEVELOPMENT & AFRICA
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

What is development?
How does equity relate to development?
Where does Africa fit into the pattern?

OVERVIEW:

Part 1 is broken into two main blocks of information. **DEVELOPMENT** provides an introduction to the whole concept of development, and challenges students to develop their own framework for analyzing ideas about progress and appropriate development. **DEVELOPMENT & AFRICA** introduces Africa as a microcosm of many of the development issues faced by Third World regions, and gives a brief description of Africa's size and diversity of peoples and climates.

DEVELOPMENT: Key Concepts

- *Development* isn't a concept relating peculiarly to the Third World. In both the First and Third worlds, we make choices about what kinds of development are appropriate for our communities and our countries.
- In both the North and the South, there are a lot of different viewpoints about what constitutes appropriate development. There are many different stakeholders in any development decision, and their viewpoints are related to questions like "Who profits?", and "Who pays?".
- Important terms—North/South; First World/Third World; GNP, IMR; Life Expectancy; Literacy Rate; sustainable development — are defined and discussed.
- North-South disparities are enormous, but there are additional disparities within countries—wealth distribution, rural/urban disparity, and gender disparity. While these disparities are, in many cases, increasing, the current crisis has resulted in a willingness to seek new solutions.

DEVELOPMENT & AFRICA: Key Concepts

- Africa is the world's poorest continent, and its conditions are deteriorating.
- Africa is not alone in facing difficult development issues; other Third World nations, and to some extent Canada, face related issues. By studying Africa, we can gain insight about these processes world-wide.
- Africa is not homogeneous, but very diverse in her people, languages, and climates.
- The various terms to describe African regions—sub-Saharan Africa, Sahel, Horn of Africa—are defined.

Two major informational and methodological sources for Part 1: Development Education Centre. **People Before Places: Development Education as an Approach to Geography.** Birmingham: Development Education Centre, 1985. (Available from Development Education Centre, Selly Oak Colleges, Bristol Road, Birmingham B29 6LE, U.K.); George, Susan. "Introduction", in Bennet, Jon. **The Hunger Machine.** Toronto: CBC Enterprises, 1987.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

This is a Recorded Message (NFB 106C 0373 028 — 10 min.)

This short film-collage bombards the viewer with advertising images of "the good life", consumerist images which follow us from cradle to grave, urging us to buy more and more things. Towards the end of the collage, the images switch from the upbeat world of product advertising to images of violence, human rights abuse, hunger.

Viewing suggestion: This film can be shown without preparation, as its message is fairly simple and clear.

Post-viewing discussion:

- What point was the producer of this film trying to make?
- What is the link between the advertising images throughout most of the film, and the negative images at the end?
- In what ways is excessive consumerism linked to poverty and violence and death
  - -in our own society?
  - -in the world?
- How are real needs (need to be liked and loved, love of beauty, sex) used in our society to make us buy things that we don't really need? Would our list of "needs" be the same as a Third World person's list of "needs"?

Follow-up activity:
Ask students to make a magazine-clipping collage of one of the following:

- "the good life", contrasted with some of its attendant problems (resource over-use, environmental damage, waste disposal problems)
- "the good life" in commercial terms, contrasted with "the good life" that they would like to have
- "the good life" contrasted with "the bad life", in the Third World and/or in our own society

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What on Earth are We Doing? (NFB 106C 0175 608—12 min.)

This film, which was produced in 1975 as a lead-up to the 1976 Habitat Conference in Vancouver, examines the choices facing Canada in deciding what kind of development we will have. Focusing on urbanization, resource use, problems of pollution, urban transport and disappearing farmland, the film is a useful discussion-starter on some of the problems of development which Canada shares with the Third World. Although it's not a new film, the problems it describes are still very much with us.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Before viewing, ask the students to watch for three or four Canadian development problems which are covered in the film.

Post-viewing discussion:

- List the problems. This film was made in 1975, almost 15 years ago. Are these problems still with us? Have they got worse or better?
- What are some solutions suggested by the film? (decentralization, citizen participation in decision-making) Can the students add any more?

Who Drew Up the Pattern?

Part 2

COLONIALISM & AFTER

BEST

contents

Part 2: Colonialism & After

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Colonialism 1-2

Colonialism Act I (Patterns Established by Colonialism):
- Dividing Up the Continent 2
- Building an Elite 2
- The Land 2-3
- The Economy: Commodity Dependence 3
- Infrastructure 3

Colonialism Act II (The Post-Colonial Effects):
- A History of Division 4
- Africa's Elite 5
- Who Gets the Wealth? 5
- The Land 6
- Recipe for Economic Disaster:
  - The Commodity Crunch 6
  - Planned Underdevelopment 6
- Infrastructure 6
- Neo-colonialism / Western Bias 7

Patterns of Development 8

Two models of development:
- Kenya 9
- Tanzania 10

Under the Gun (The Militarization of Africa) 11-12

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 12-15

TEACHER NOTES 16

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 17

Colonialism & After

"The sun never sets on the British Empire."

co-lo-ni-al-ism (-iz'm) n. the system by which a country maintains foreign colonies, esp. for economic exploitation. *(Webster's New World Dictionary)*

Here's the dictionary meaning of the word. But what does colonialism really mean to different people?

Ask almost any European gentleman of the mid-nineteenth century what he thought about colonialism, and he'd probably tell you it was a good idea: good for Europe, which needed the raw materials produced by the colonies and colonial markets for its manufactured goods, and good for the colonized people, who were at best very "backward" types of human beings, who would greatly benefit from contact with European civilization—the schools, hospitals, the system of government, and the Christian religion.

"To transform the primitive people of our colonies, to make them devoted to our cause and useful to our enterprises, we only have at our disposal a limited number of means. The surest one is to take the native from childhood, to obtain of him that he follow assiduously and submit to our intellectual and moral habits for a number of years: in other words, to open for him schools where his mind will be trained to obey our aims." *(George Hardy, supervisor of schools in French colonial Africa)*

To one of these "primitive people" the word colonialism would probably have a very different meaning.

"Existence for the colonial peoples under imperialist rule means their economic and political exploitation..... It is from this that the African peoples must constantly strive to free themselves."
(Kwame Nkrumah, later the first President of Ghana)

Sub-Saharan Africa was colonised long after the Europeans had colonised North and South America. Protected by a climate and set of diseases which killed off Europeans like flies, guarded by a coastline without bays or inland seas, the huge Sahara desert in the north, rivers full of rapids, and 1,000-mile-long sandbars along the east and west coasts, Africa remained "the dark continent" until the late nineteenth century. Africa's geography, however, couldn't protect her forever.

In 1879, the United Africa Company, under Sir William Goldie of Britain, began to establish over 100 trading posts in what is now Nigeria, "persuading" unwilling chiefs with a fleet of twenty gunboats. Meanwhile, the famous explorer Henry Stanley, hired by King Leopold of Belgium, was convincing chiefs in the Congo to sign away their territories, and other adventurers, hired by France and Germany, joined the race. In 1884 to '85, in a series of meetings known as the **Conference of Berlin**, the European powers—France, Britain, Germany, Belgium, Portugal, Italy, and Spain—divided up the continent between them; only Liberia and Ethiopia remained independent states.

How could Africans let this happen? How could outsiders move in and simply take over the continent?

The major answer is that might equalled right. The Europeans had taken a quantum leap forward in the arms race; they had invented the Gatling and the Maxim machine guns, giving them a massive superiority in arms. And they were prepared to use that superiority ruthlessly.

"I cannot but express my sense of regret at the very great loss of life among these ignorant savages, and the burning of the villages with their food. The Munshis however are a most intractable people, and nothing except extremely severe chastisement of this sort will prevent them from lawless murders and looting of canoes, or induce them to allow the telegraph to be constructed through their country."

Lord Lugard, British Colonial Administrator in Northern Nigeria, in 1900 *(Cited in Stavrianos, Global Rift. New York: Wm. Morrow & Co., 1981)*

There was resistance, as the quotation above implies. But this resistance was soon quelled. For a period of over 70 years, Africa's development was to be managed by Europeans.

So, what does this have to do with Africa today?

Many of the patterns for development which were set up by the colonial powers still affect Africa today.

COLONIALISM: Act I

1. DIVIDING UP THE CONTINENT

(You take this bit, and I'll settle for that)

If you were given the task of slicing up a continent, you might decide that it was important to find out what languages the inhabitants spoke, and who got along well with whom. This just goes to show how thinking has changed in the last hundred years. The Europeans dividing up Africa drew the lines with little regard for geographical or cultural factors. Some cultural groups found themselves divided into several different colonies. The Somalis, for instance, were divided between the French, British, Italians and Ethiopians. On the other hand, cultural groups who traditionally did not get along well found themselves inhabiting the same country.

What effect might this ill-planned division of the country have on Africa today?

2. BUILDING OF AN ELITE

In order to maintain control over large numbers of people with a small number of administrators and soldiers, the colonizers used the system which was already in place; they ruled through the traditional chiefs. Although the chiefs were virtual puppets, carrying out the decisions of the colonial administrators, in some ways they were more powerful than they had been before. Traditionally, they had governed within a system of communal decision-making. Chiefs had had to negotiate decisions with groups of people from their communities. Under colonial rule, they no longer had to include groups below them in decision-making. This was the beginning of a new elite group which lost touch with the common people. This group was further separated from the commoners by an education system which was only for the very few, and was European in content and style. This group, in post-independence years, would be supported by two institutions which the colonizers had taken care to keep very strong: the military and the police.

Are there any ways in which this development of an elite might affect Africa's present development?

3. THE LAND

Compared to other continents such as the Americas, where the colonists simply took over huge tracts of land, Africa fared fairly well. However, in certain areas, Africans were deprived of their land, and forced to work as ill-paid or forced labourers. In areas with cooler climates attractive to white settlers—Kenya, Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), and South Africa—landless Africans were re-

...continued

duced to working for little pay, or providing cheap labour for the mines. **How might this affect food production today?**

4. THE ECONOMY

Before colonialism, African farmers grew a variety of crops—millet, sorghum, cassava—to provide both food variety and insurance against the weather and against disease. If a drought or disease obliterated one crop, the others might still pull through. This, however, was not what the colonists wanted. No one in Britain or France was about to launch into a diet of sorghum! What colonial administrators wanted were raw materials for which there was a demand in Europe. Within a very short time, local food crops were replaced with monoculture crops for export. Gambia's rice was replaced with peanuts. Sudan and Uganda were the providers of cotton, Dahomey and Nigeria of palm oil, Ghana of cocoa.

How did the administrators manage to pursuade the farmers to switch to the new crops? In some countries, such as the Congo under King Leopold of Belgium, people were simply forced. If the residents didn't appear with the requisite amount of wild rubber, they were mutilated or shot. Most of the European powers, however, were much more civil. They accomplished their ends through taxation. Up until colonization, Africans had managed to exist without money; they had a non-cash, barter economy. Suddenly, they were informed, through their chiefs, that they were to pay a tax, and that the tax must be paid in cash. How would they raise cash? The only way, for these subsistance farmers, was to plant at least some of their land in the cash crop desired by the administrators.

a) How might a single export-crop economy affect Africa's present development?

Many of the African countries are rich in natural resources. In Northern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), for instance, the copper mines brought in huge amounts of profits. Records show that two-thirds of those profits left Rhodesia, and went to Britain.

b) What does this loss of capital mean for Rhodesia, and other similar African countries, today?

5.INFRASTRUCTURE

An old colonial joke, based on fact, is that someone wanting to make a telephone call from Accra, in Ghana, to Abidjan, in neighbouring Ivory Coast, would have to be routed through both London and Paris. There were no direct telephone links between the two colonies; the only links were to the mother countries. Until recently, a postal strike in Paris would paralyze all mail service between the French colonies. While improvements have been made, communication and transportation systems are still oriented towards communication and trade with the First World.

How might a lack of internal transportation systems affect Africa now?

COLONIALISM: Act II

The Post-colonial Effects

1. A History of Division

(A result of colonialists who didn't know how to divide)

If you attended one of Nigeria's many secondary boarding schools, the first question you would be asked would be, "What tribe are you from?" You would be asked the question in English, which would be your second or third language, because English is the only language by which people from all areas of Nigeria, a country of over 300 languages, can communicate. If you came from a very rural area of Nigeria, your face might be marked with "tribal markings", cuts in a particular pattern made when you were an infant, to show that you belonged to a particular tribe. For in your tribe, rather than in your nation, would lie your roots.

In 1967, a group of officers from the Ibo tribe, one of the three major tribes of Nigeria, declared their territory, the south-eastern region of Nigeria, to be a separate nation called Biafra. This action was partially in response to a massacre of Ibos in the northern region; the massacre, in turn, was in response to a military coup in which Ibos had seized power. Three years later, after a bloody civil war, the Ibo dream of Biafra was ended; Nigeria maintained her borders.

The Biafran war is probably the most famous of Africa's tribally motivated civil wars, but neither the first nor the last. Since independence, Africa has been plagued by war, with groups wanting to secede to form their own nations, or quarrelling with their neighbours over boundaries. Since the mid-1950s, 17 countries, with 70% of the population of sub-Saharan Africa, have suffered severe and prolonged conflicts.

In Ethiopia, wars between the Ethiopian government and the secessionist Eritreans and Tigrayans drag on. Zimbabwe's early years of independence were marred by struggle between the majority Shona group and the minority Ndebele people. Burundi is one of the latest African countries to hit the front pages of the press with accounts of inter-tribal strife.

And that's not all...

The nomadic pastoralists who once drove their animals over huge tracts of semi-arid grassland now found their grazing lands reduced by the new borders. This, as we'll read later (Part 6: Environment), was to contribute to the desertification of Africa.

'Death blow' threatened by Burundi

The Associated Press

NAIROBI — Burundi's governing party threatened on Wednesday to deal a "death blow" to instigators of tribal warfare that left 5,000 people dead and set about 40,000 fleeing across the border.

The refugees pouring into Burundi's northern neighbor, Rwanda, say the Burundi army, which along with the government is dominated by the minority Tutsi tribe, is taking part in a mass slaughter of the country's majority Hutu tribe.. . .

Radio Burundi said the governing Union for National Progress party issued a statement pledging "to deal a death blow to outsiders who have been inciting peaceful Burundians to cause trouble in the country."....

The Hutu People Liberation party, an exiled opposition group, has said Burundi's military massacred thousands of Hutus.

The government has denied the accusations and claims 5,000 people were killed in a slaughter instigated by exiled Hutus who infiltrated the tiny central African country to inflame anti-Tutsi sentiment.

Despite making up nearly 85 per cent of Burundi's five million people, the Hutu are subservient to the Tutsi, who make up the remaining 15 per cent and dominate the government and army.

The Hutu and the Tutsi are long-time enemies. Following an abortive 1972 coup attempt in the former Belgian colony, the Tutsi massacred more than 100,000 Hutu, including most of the tribe's intelligentsia, human-rights groups said.

As of Tuesday, about 38,000 refugees had fled into Rwanda since the violence began Aug. 14, and an estimated 5,000 peasants continue to cross the border daily.

(Victoria Times-Colonist, August 25, 1988)

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2. Africa's Elite: AN INVITATION TO CIVIL UNREST

Bongo says goodbye to economy class

President Omar Bongo has always been known to have a soft spot for travelling in style, but now, thanks to a generous donation from the French Ministry of Cooperation, the Gabonese leader will be on cloud nine when his newly reconverted luxury DC-8 takes off from Libreville. According to Le Canard Enchaine, the Paris-based satirical newspaper, Minister of Cooperation Michel Aurillac has agreed to shell out nearly $3 million in "aid" to enable Bongo to lavishly redecorate the interior of his private plane.

As a small token of appreciation for Bongo's warm and lasting friendship, the Gabonese president is being paid directly out of the French government's Aid and Cooperation Fund for Black Africa—a sum which nearly matches the $3.4 million a year Paris officially contributes to Gabon for various development projects. Bongo is reportedly prepared to foot the bill for the remaining $1.8 million that is required if he is to go ahead with plans to convert his DC-8 into a veritable flying palace, featuring a few fashionable accessories like a $720,000 cinema and stereo system.

While the disclosure of the French government's donation did raise a few eyebrows in Paris, the deal more than anything underlines the special relationship that France has cultivated with its former colony. About 13,000 French nationals live in Gabon, and France continues to provide the lion's share of the country's military budget, including the permanent military presence of nearly 800 men.

Meanwhile, Gabon is an all-important source of uranium for France's nuclear power program as well as a key producer of oil, which is pumped and sold by the French-Gabonese company, Elf Gabon, as part of a highly lucrative financial arrangement. In return, says Le Canard Enchaine, France has showered Bongo with attention and on occasion has indulged his taste for the high life. *(Africa Report, May-June 1988)*

(**Note**: the per capita GNP of Gabon is $3,773. Sounds pretty good, until you look at the other indicators: Life expectancy - 49 years; IMR - 112; Percentage of population with safe water - 50%. What does this suggest about income distribution in Gabon?) *(Ruth Sivard, World Military and Social Expenditures, 1987-88)*

WHO GETS THE WEALTH?

The columns show what percentage of the GNP is possessed by the poorest 20%, the second poorest 20%, and the richest 20% of the population. (For example, in Ivory Coast, the poorest 20% have 2.4% of the GNP, the next poorest have 6.2%, while the richest 20% have 61.4%.)

	Poorest 20%	Next 20%	Richest 20%		Poorest 20%	Next 20%	Richest 20%
Ivory Coast	2.4	6.2	61.4	Canada	5.3	11.8	40.0
Kenya	2.6	6.3	60.4	Japan	8.7	13.2	37.5
Zambia	3.4	7.4	61.1	Netherlands	8.3	14.1	36.2
Mauritius	4.0	7.5	60.5	Brazil	2.0	5.0	66.6

(Figures from World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

President Bongo, with his luxury jet, is an extreme example of the "WaBenzi", so nicknamed because of their love of Mercedes Benz cars. This elite, which was originally created by colonialism, dominates many African countries, often with the continuing support and military aid of European powers. Many of Africa's nations might be described as having "dual economies". A handful at the top of the scale (a small, urban elite) consumes a large proportion of the wealth, having little understanding of the problems of the large masses of rural poor at the bottom end of the scale.

We've discussed above some of the effects of civil conflict caused by tribalism; but the elite structure of many African countries also causes conflict. In any economy where there is a handful of rich and large masses of poor, there is an increased likelihood of large-scale unrest from the bottom of the scale, and a response of repression from the top. In any country where a large military establishment must be maintained to keep the citizens in order, there is increased risk of a military coup, and an increased subservience of civilian authority to military authority. Civilian leaders realize that if they don't want to be deposed by a military coup, they had better agree to military demands. Since 1945, Africa has endured 73 political coups and has witnessed the assassination of 13 heads of state.

3. The Land

In Zimbabwe, Kenya and South Africa, land distribution is still a problem. In South Africa, the black people, who constitute 85% of the population, own 13% of the land. In Zimbabwe, much of the best farmland is still owned by white farmers. In Kenya, land ownership is very uneven; large tracts are owned by multinational companies or wealthy Africans.The majority of the people farm plots of two or three acres.

4. Recipe for Economic Disaster

Illustration by Howard Saunders, Food First

a) The Commodity Crunch

Africa is still saddled with the curse of commodity-based economies. Once independence came, the entire system of marketing and transportation was already set up for the export of certain goods, and it is difficult to change an established structure. As we'll see in Part 4 (*Trade, Aid & Debt*), the economy which is based on the export of commodities is very vulnerable to shifts in climate and in international trade. A country which emphasizes export crops without paying enough attention to domestic crops may find itself faced with famine.

b) Planned Underdevelopment

Instead of building a copper refinery in Rhodesia, to help in the development of Rhodesia, unrefined copper was shipped to Britain, and British workers got the jobs. Thus, while the manufacturing countries of Europe were developing, the colonies of Africa, and of other parts of the world, were maintained as underdeveloped areas. They were to be the "hewers of wood and drawers of water" for the wealthier, northern countries. Thus, African countries at independence were faced with the dual problem of having, with few engineers and limited financial resources, to build the factories and processing plants which had not been built during the colonial years, and having to try to enter the international markets for processed and manufactured goods at a time when the developed countries had already established themselves.

5. Infrastructure

The fact that transportation systems are geared towards export to European nations has hurt trade and aid between African countries.

Even the capital cities of many African countries are situated, not near the nation's centre, but on the coast, where it would be most convenient for the foreign administrators. Tanzania and Nigeria have built new capital cities (Tanzania-Dodoma; Nigeria-Abuga) to try to rectify this.

Colonialism and Africa Now: One Last Word

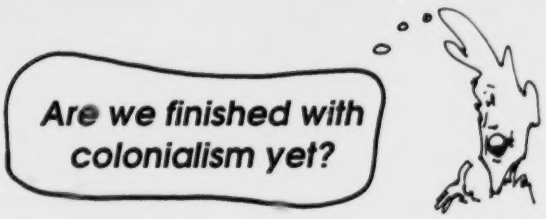
Africa's problems cannot all be laid at the door of colonialism. Since independence, many mistakes—often well-intentioned—have been made. There is no doubt, however, that if we want to understand why Africa, along with the rest of the Third World, is so poor and so hungry, we must understand that the countries of Europe, far from helping their colonies develop, maintained them in a state of underdevelopment for a period of seventy to eighty years, using their resources to fuel European, rather than local, development. The patterns laid down during this period are still hindering the progress of African countries towards sustainable economies.

*(Sources: Stavrianos,, L.S. **Global Rift.** N.Y.: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1981; Harrison, P. **The Greening of Africa**, Paladin, 1987; **New Internationalist**, July 1984)*

"Well, at least we brought them education!"

HOW MUCH EDUCATION?

At independence, Mozambique had two doctors and a dozen typists; the Belgian Congo (now Zaire), had 13 college graduates. By 1958, Northern Rhodesia, with an African population of 2 million, possessed only one secondary school offering graduation certificates.



Not quite. We're still experiencing a colonial hangover, even 20-odd years after most African countries have become independent.

A COLONIAL HANGOVER

One major problem which is still hanging on is the legacy of **neo-colonialism**, a structure of international trade relationships which favour rich nations at the expense of the poor. See Part 4: Trade, Aid, & Debt, for more about that.

Another hangover-effect is **Western bias.** After all those years of colonialists imposing their technically-superior solutions on Africans, all of us—Europeans and Africans alike—had convinced ourselves that "West is Best". The African ways, developed over the centuries, were universally looked down upon. After independence, the first teachers of agriculture at African universities were Westerners, and African agricultural students received training at Western universities. Inappropriate methods—full-scale mechanization, chemical fertilizers, and monocropping—were often adopted. Many countries tried to follow the western model of urban industrialization. Twenty years later, faced with famine and heavy financial debt, Africans and westerners are realizing that the methods used in African development must build on traditional African wisdom if they are to succeed.

"...growth must come out of our own roots, not through the grafting on to those of something which is alien to our society. We shall draw sustenance from universal human ideas and from the practical experiences of other peoples; but we start from a full acceptance of our African-ness and a belief that in our own past there is very much which is useful for our future...." (Julius Nyerere, first president of Tanzania)

PATTERNS OF DEVELOPMENT

"So now we're independent; where do we go from here?"

"If we can just get some big projects going—dams, electricity—we'll be fine."

"Let's educate some of our people in technical areas. We need to modernize!"

"What about the education level of our people? We've got to provide more schools if we want our country to develop."

"We need more capital to get going. Maybe we could get some western companies to build factories. That would provide jobs."

"The World Bank has offered money for large irrigation projects to help us grow export crops. I think that's the way to go."

"Let's help the small farmer; that's the group that will feed this country!"

The newly-independent African countries were very different in their political philosophies. Countries like Zaire, Kenya and Ivory Coast adopted varying forms of African capitalism. Theirs was, and still continues to be, a **"trickle down"** theory of development, following the lines established by the colonial administrators. As the rich people prosper, eventually the wealth will trickle down to the poor, and everyone will benefit. A smaller group of countries, including Tanzania, Zimbabwe and Mozambique, have rejected the "trickle down" theory, in favour of an attempt at **"grassroots"** development. Their attempt, which is sometimes called *African socialism* , is to involve the people at the lower levels in planning development, and to stress rural development as well as industrial development.

However, whether the country was capitalist or socialist in orientation, it was heavily influenced by the **take-off model**, which held that if enough money could be pumped into key sectors of the economy, the entire economy would take off. This model, which called for highly mechanized inputs into agriculture, and the building of dams and factories, was highly favoured by the World Bank (see Part 4: *Trade, Aid & Debt*).

The problem with this approach was that it generally used high-tech, western solutions which didn't work in Africa, and the high costs of this approach involved African countries in debt, which is now one of Africa's greatest problems.

CLOSE-UP: TWO DIFFERENT MODELS OF DEVELOPMENT

KENYA: The Trickle Down Approach

BASIC DATA
Population: 21.2 million
Area: 583,000 sq. km.
Urban/rural population: 20% / 80%
GNP per capita: $300
Income Distribution: Ratio between the top 20% and the bottom 20% of the population is 23:1
Average annual growth rate 1965-86: 1.9%
Life Expectancy - 57 years IMR - 74 (down from 112 in 1965)
Percentage Gov't expenditure on Defence - 8.7 Health 6.4 Education 19.7
Daily calorie supply per capita: 2,214 (down slightly from 1965)
Babies with low birthweight: 18%
Education: Primary School : 94% (up from 54% in 1965)
Secondary School: 20% (up from 4% in 1965)
(World Bank, World Development Report 1988. Information for years 1982-86.)

The first billboard outside Nairobi airport reads: "General Motors Kenya Limited — With Full Confidence in the Economic Future of Kenya." This highlights the development strategy which Kenya chose following its independence in1963. European and American corporations were invited in to invest in Kenya, encouraged by favourable tax laws, including the freedom to send unlimited profits out of the country. Kenya has industrialized with relative speed, and is now one of Africa's major suppliers of manufactured goods. In Kenya, business and government are closely interlinked; government officials are often represented on the boards of large corporations.

Thousands of tourists are attracted to Kenya each year. However, most of the large facilities for tourists are foreign-owned, and the money paid by tourists to foreign tour companies never reaches Kenya.

81% of the population relies on agriculture. While some land reform has taken place, restoring land formerly owned by British colonists to African farmers, Kenyan agriculture still continues to be characterized by inequality. Large plantations are owned by foreign companies or wealthy Kenyans, and the majority of poor farmers occupy farms of 2 or 3 acres or less. The majority of these farmers are women, whose husbands have migrated to the cities to look for work to supplement their families' meagre incomes.

Map: New Internationalist January 1984

Thus, while this pattern of development has benefitted some Kenyans, the vast majority of Kenyans live in poverty. Agencies such as the International Labour Organization and the World Bank have pointed out the serious gap in income and in employment existing between the rich and poor in Kenya. "Trickle down" has not reached most Kenyans.

Kenya has a one-party political system. The one opposition party, the Kenya People's Union (KPU), which called for nationalization of lands and business enterprises, was outlawed in 1969, after the assassination of one of its leaders, Tom Mboya. Since that time, there has been one coup attempt in 1982, and increasing international concern about violation of human rights in Kenya.

(Information sources: World Bank, World Development Report 1988; Gatt-Fly, Reflections on Unctad IV, 1976; New Internationalist, January 1984)

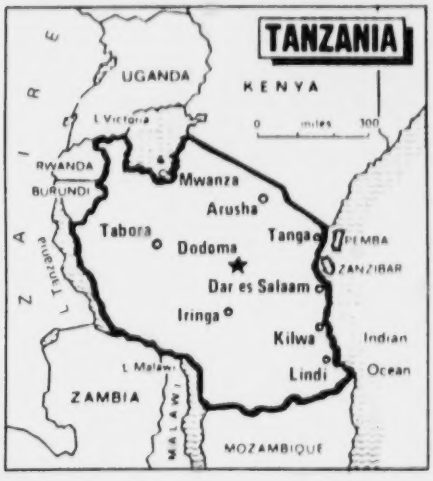
TANZANIA: Grassroots Development

The Place: Tanzania, formerly the two British colonies of Tanganyika and Zanzibar.
The Time: 1967, three years after independence.
The Event: The ***Arusha Declaration***, in which Tanzania's president, Julius Nyerere, outlines a policy of egalitarianism (a classless society) and self-reliance for Tanzania.

- Primary education will focus on practical skills–agriculture and technical skills–and be cooperative, rather than competitive.
- Rural development is high priority. Farmers will be moved into central ***Ujamaa*** villages, where they will have educational, health, and agricultural services.
- Public officials must live on their government salaries; they cannot be shareholders or directors of private companies.
- Land is nationalized, along with some housing, banks, and industries.
- The emphasis is on distribution. The benefits of development must be shared by all.

How has Tanzanian development progressed since the Arusha declaration?

- By 1976, there were 7,650 ujamaa villages for 13 million of a total population of 15 million. Each village has an elected council to undertake tasks leading to village development. The mobilization of people into villages presented problems; many people didn't want to be relocated. The prices paid for farm produce are still not enough to encourage people to stay in their villages. Although 86% of the people are rural, urbanization continues to be a problem.
- The Tanzanian Health Service is government-run (all private practice was abolished in 1980), and consists mainly of a system of over 2,000 village dispensaries staffed by para-medical workers, backed up by district and regional clinics and hospitals. However, the lion's share of the health budget is still given to urban health services.
- The annual rate of growth has been slower than that of many other African countries; however, Tanzania feels that this is the price of attempting to maintain more control over their own development, rather than allowing foreign companies to control development.



Map: New Internationalist

There have been problems:

- Tanzania helped Ugandan exiles overthrow their dictator Idi Amin in 1979—a war which cost over half a billion dollars.
- Added to the cost of war was the increase in oil prices in the 70s, combined with a drop in export prices. This has led to a huge debt burden, and a slow-down of the economy. Recently, Tanzania has bowed to pressure by the IMF (International Monetary Fund) to re-value its currency, increase privatization, and open up its country to more foreign investment.

Tanzania has a one-party system, and real policy debate tends to take place within the party, rather than in Parliament.

(Information Sources: World Bank, World Development Report 1988; New Internationalist Nov87; OXFAM Information Department, Tanzania, 1982)

BASIC DATA

Population: 23 million
Area: 945,000 sq. km.
Urban/Rural Population: 14% / 84%
GNP per capita: $250
Income Distribution: Ratio between the top 20% and the bottom 20% of the population is 6:1.*
Average annual growth rate 1965 - 86 : -0.3%
Life Expectancy : 53 years IMR - 108 (from 138 in 1965)
Percentage gov't expenditure on Defence - 13.8 Health 4.9 Education - 7.2
Daily calorie supply per capita: 2,316 (up substantially from 1965)
Babies with low birthweights: 12%
Education: Primary School: 72% (up from 32% in 1965)
Secondary School: 3% (up from 2% in 1965)

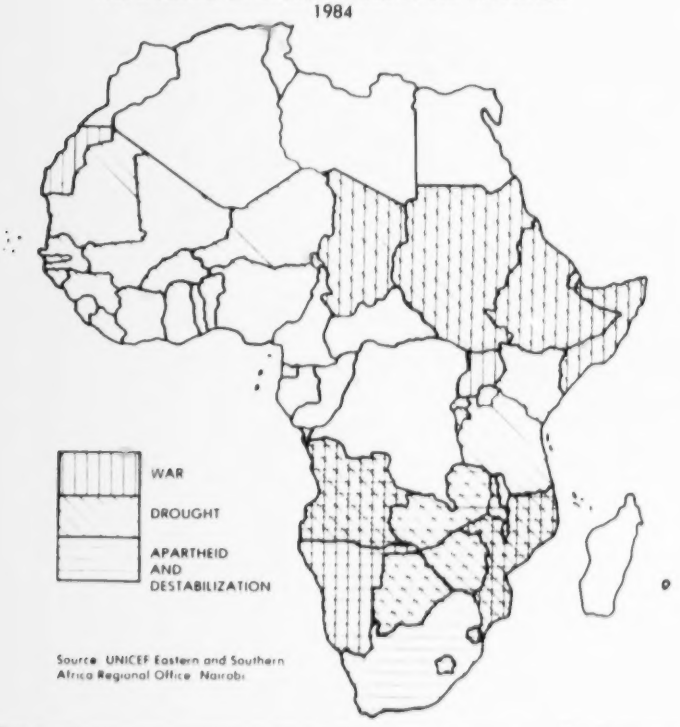
** OXFAM 1982 figures* *World Bank, World Development Report 1988*

UNDER THE GUN:
the Militarization of Africa

Countries riven with tribal conflicts, countries with a small, rich elite and masses of increasingly desperate poor: both of these are major ingredients in a recipe of increasing militarism and repression. Add to this a third ingredient—the involvement of the superpowers as they try to win influence in Africa by military aid—and you end up with a picture of a desperately poor continent which is wasting an increasing proportion of its resources on military spending.

The total picture of increasing militarism in Africa is a sad one. Africa in 1984 for the first time imported more arms than food, an expenditure it could little afford.

AFRICA UNDER STRESS:
THE OVERLAP OF WAR, DROUGHT AND APARTHEID
1984



Source: UNICEF Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office, Nairobi

from UNICEF, Within Human Reach: A Future for Africa's Children, 1985

How many countries have both war and drought?
How might war affect a country's ability to combat drought?
What are some of the reasons First World countries sell arms to African countries?
For more about *apartheid*, turn to Part 3.

Military Muscle

In the past ten years all but three African countries (Zaire, Ghana and Liberia) have increased their military spending. Arms imports grew more rapidly than in any other region of the Third World in the 1970s—more than twice as fast as the arms trade to the oil-rich Middle East. And while military spending is still small by world standards, it is very significant for the hard-pressed economies of Africa. Before 1965, South Africa and Egypt were the only countries purchasing new combat jet aircraft on the international arms market. Now at least 17 African countries have ordered or taken delivery of such aircraft, and several others possess second-hand combat aircraft or light aircraft specifically adapted to "counter-insurgency". Today, no less than 22 countries on the continent possess guided missiles—mostly for sea and air defence. No country yet has a nuclear arsenal although South Africa is in the process of developing one. This will provide a powerful incentive for countries like Nigeria and Libya to follow suit as nuclear proliferation hits the continent.

As the military's firepower has grown, so has its political power. It is now a major instrument of political change: making and unmaking revolutions and coups."

(Robin Luckham, Military Muscle, New Internationalist Sept.84)

Africa and the Big Picture

In its increasing use of weapons, and its ties to the superpowers, Africa is following a world trend. Third world weapons spending has increased, as a percentage of world spending, from 7 per cent in 1960 to 20 percent in 1987. The growing expenditure on arms, as well as diverting money from health, education, shelter and food production, also has the effect of increasing the debt owed by the Third World to the First World. This, in turn, is an incentive for Third World countries to devote more of their land, credit and aid to export crops, rather than domestic crops to feed their people, in order to raise foreign currency for debt payment. Thus, starving Ethiopia directs its agricultural aid, not to the small, struggling farmer, but to its coffee producers, who will help raise more money to pay the debt and to buy more arms.

"...must we starve our children to raise our defence expenditures? For the sad fact is that from 1972 to 1982, the health and education expenditures of the low-income developing countries went down...while, at the same time, the defence spending of the developing world rose from $7 billion to over $100 billion. When our children cry in the middle of the night, shall we give them weapons instead of milk?"

(Mahbub-ul-Haq, Finance Minister of Pakistan, 1986)

ACTIVITIES:

1. Colonialism: the After-Effects:

Read **Colonialism & After**, pages 1 to 3. Working either in small groups or singly, discuss the questions at the end of each section. Jot down as many ideas as you can about what the long-term effects of each of the colonial policies will be. When you're finished, read Colonialism: Act II, pages 4 to 6. What points did you miss? What things did you think of that the writer might have missed?

2. Perspectives on Colonialism:

"I have the duty to help save the heathen from damnation, wean them from their perversity, and open the gates to a Christian civilisation." *(Mary Slessar, Scottish missionary)*

"Why do I regard the British rule as a curse? It has impoverished the people by a system of progressive exploitation and a ruinously expensive military and civil administration which the country can never afford. It has reduced us politically to serfdom. It has sapped the foundations of our culture." *(Gandhi, 1930)*

"The foreign investors did not in fact take away from African tribesmen a form of wealth which they had previously enjoyed....The mining companies created a new form of enterprise; they mined ores which communities such as the Lamba and Lala could not have exploited with the technological means available to tribal society." *(Gann and Duignan, The Burden of Empire (NY: Praeger, 1967))*

"Law and order is perhaps the most important advantage that we British gave to our colonies. People could go about their daily lives without fear of attack by others. Also our nation's record in abolishing slavery is a commendable fact.

We took the ideals of liberty, equality, justice and democracy to the colonies. With these came the advantages of civilisation closely followed by the benefits of technology. *British Colonial Administrator, quoted in Cooke, D., Teaching Development Issues: Colonialism (Manchester: Development Education Project, 1986)*

After reading **Colonialism and After**, look at these quotes, each presenting a different point of view. In groups of two, plan and rehearse a short skit depicting a hypothetical meeting between a colonial administrator of the early 1900s, and a young African of today. Have each sincerely try to present his/her view of the benefits/damages of colonialism to the other.

3. Canadian "Tribalism":

After reading the clipping **'Death blow' threatened by Burundi** (p. 4) we might feel that Canada is a fortunate nation. However, Canada, too, has faced tension over the fact that it is a nation composed of many ethnic groupings. Can you think of an example where people of a particular race or ethnic group have felt themselves to have been treated unfairly? With a partner, work on a skit in which Canada's Minister of State meets with his or her Burundian counterpart. The Canadian has some advice for the Burundian, but discovers that the Burundian also has some advice for Canadians. (Some suggestions of areas to examine: education, voting rights, areas of self-government, opportunities to work or study with people from different groups)

4. Models of Development:

Read the case studies of Kenya and Tanzania in *Close Up: Two Different Models of Development*. In what ways is the Canadian path to development similar to that of Kenya? Tanzania? In what ways are they different? Are there some ways that Canada can learn from the choices made by Kenya and Tanzania?

Write an essay entitled "Choices in Development", outlining how development choices in Kenya, Tanzania and Canada affect the average citizen.

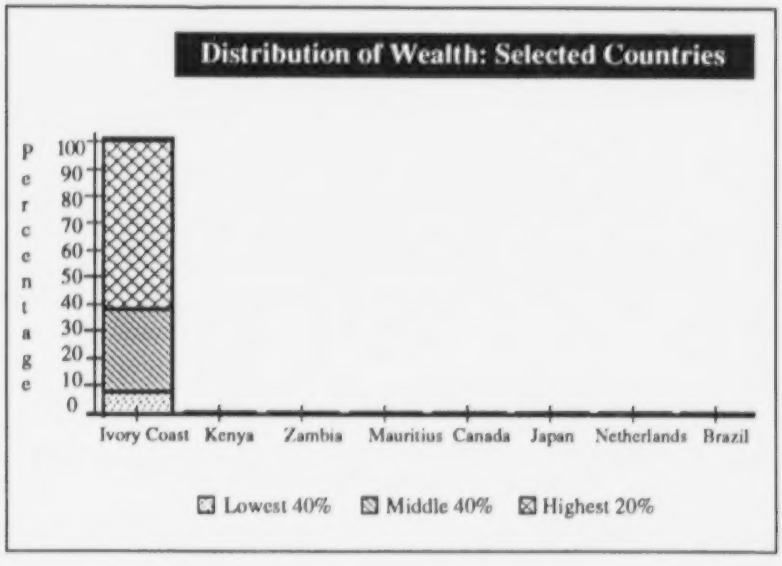
5. Figuring Out the Wealth:

a) Look at the table "Who Gets the Wealth", page 5.The relationship between the wealth of the top 20% and that of the bottom 20% can also be expressed as a ratio. Brazil, for instance, has the highest rich/poor ratio in the world, 33:1 (found by dividing the top 20% by the bottom 20%). In other words, in Brazil the top 20% of the population receives 33 times as much income as the bottom 20%.

Go through the rest of the countries in the table and work out the rich/poor ratios.

b) **Graph it:**

Another way to compare these figures is to graph them. Following the example below, create a stacked bar graph for each country listed in the table. Each bar graph should have three components: the bottom 40% (add two columns in the table to obtain this figure), the middle 40%, and the top 20%. How does Canada compare to other countries? Which countries have the most equal distribution? The least equal distribution?



6. Militarism versus Development:

In 1987, global military expenditures reached a new height of $946 billion dollars—$1.8 million(US) per minute. Third World military spending accounted for almost 20% of this figure, up from 7% in 1960. Africa's military spending reflects a similar level of increase. In what ways is this increased militarization a result of colonial policy? In what ways could Canada have be a positive influence in reducing military spending (aid policy, arms sales policy, peace-keeping policy)? Discuss in small groups, then either report your ideas, in point form, back to the class, or use them as a basis for writing individual essays.

7. AFRIK: A Simulation on Choosing a Path for Development

The year is 1961. Your country, Afrik, has just achieved independence from a colonial power. You are part of a committee set up to guide one of the seven cabinet ministers of the newly-elected government. You will advise him or her on what policies should be instituted in order for the country to develop in ways which you consider appropriate. He or she will in turn try to reach consensus with the rest of the cabinet on what policies should be instituted. You may be asked to provide back-up advice during this cabinet meeting.

First, read through the information on your country:

AFRIK: Facts & Figures

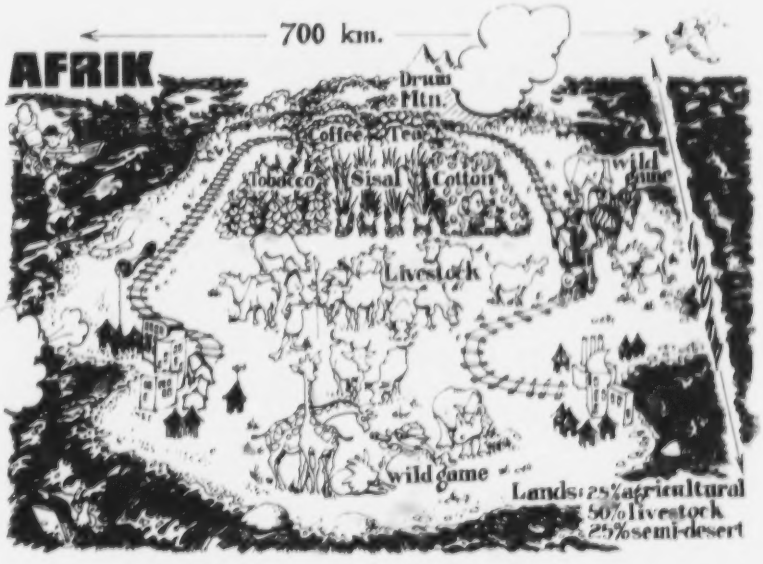
LAND: Afrik is a large island lying off the east coast of Africa at the equator. It is 945,000 sq. km. in area, or roughly the same size as B.C. The terrain is generally flat except for highlands around Drum Mountain, a dormant volcano.

CLIMATE: Afrik is generally hot and dry year round with two short rainy seasons in April/May and Nov/Dec. Cooler and wetter conditions are found in the highland area around Drum Mountain.

RESOURCES: Fish, agricultural land (25% of land area) and cattle ranching (50%), plus "tourist resources" of wild game and tropical beaches. There are no known mineral deposits of any significance.

PEOPLE: 13 million, belonging to over 100 small tribes. All speak a common African language in addition to their tribal languages. Most live in scattered homesteads engaging in subsistence fishing and farming. A small number are nomadic livestock keepers. Others are employed as labourers on agricultural plantations.

As a result of the recent colonial experience, self respect and pride in local culture is at a low level. Literacy level is about 5%. Christianity, Islam and tribal religions each claim about one-third of the population. A very small educated African elite is beginning to form in the wake of the departing colonial civil servants.



ECONOMY: Afrik is one of the poorest countries in the world with a per capita income of less than $100 a year.

Major food crops are fish, corn, sorghum, cassava, rice and beans. Major cash crops are coffee, cotton, sisal, tea and tobacco.

Given Afrik's reliance on exports of low-priced agricultural products, foreign exchange is in short supply. However, given the sizeable market and low-cost labour force, many private companies from Europe and North America have shown interest in investing in Afrik.

INFRASTRUCTURE: There are two harbours with railroads connecting them to the highland area. A road network exists but all roads outside of the towns are gravel.

There are a few small factories in the capital city and the other ports.

SERVICES: Medical services are minimal in towns and are virtually non-existent in the rural areas.

Primary schools can handle only 25% of school-aged children. Secondary schools can take a tiny fraction of the graduates of primary schools. Curriculum is a copy of that of the colonial power which has just left.

A small army and police force were inherited from the colonial administration.

Second, divide into committees:

You will be assigned one of the following ministries. From your committee, choose the cabinet minister who will represent you at the cabinet meeting. Then draw up, in brief point form, a list of the policies which your ministry thinks should be adopted. Write these out on a large sheet of newsprint for class viewing.

Ministry of **EDUCATION**:
★ Will you build any value system into the educational program? If so, what values will you promote?
★ What are the goals of education? How do these relate to the economic and social goals you will set?
★ What priorities will you adopt in the teaching of skills?

Ministry of **SOCIAL ORGANIZATION**
★ Will you aim for a classless society?
★ Will you set a higher priority on rapid development or on social and economic equality?
★ Do you see competition or cooperation as the preferred basis for social organization?
★ How will you implement the goals you have set?

Ministry of **ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT** (Internal)
★ Will you adopt a planned economy, a free enterprise system, or a combination of both?
★ Who will own the land?
★ What goals will you have for economic development?
★ What area of economic development will have first priority? Will industrialization be high on your list?
★ What incentives will be used to encourage participation in development?
★ Will you attempt to ensure economic equality? If so, how?

Ministry of **ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT** (External)
★ How much foreign investment will you seek? Any limit on the amount?
★ For what kinds of development will you seek foreign aid?
★ What kind of foreign aid will you seek? (low-interest loans, grants, joint projects, etc.)
★ What development plans have you for repaying the loans?

Ministry of **HEALTH AND WELFARE**
★ What type of health programs will you plan?
★ What educational programs will you develop for training of medical personnel?
★ Will you encourage private practice or public control?
★ How will you provide for social welfare?

Ministry of **LABOUR**
★ Will you allow collective bargaining?
★ Will you allow strikes?
★ What participation in management will the workers have?
★ What incentives will workers have to improve production?

Ministry of **DEFENCE**
★ What decisions will you make about a defence establishment—standing army? militia?
★ What portion of the budget will be spent on defence?

Third, organize the cabinet meeting:

Cabinet ministers can either sit in a row facing the rest of the class (the class still divided into their ministry groups) or, if a larger space is available, in a large circle, with members of their ministry sitting behind them. In either case, ministers must be prepared to consult with their ministries at certain times in the discussion. The presentation proceeds as follows:

* minister presents his/her policies
* brief break while committees discuss how these policies will fit with the policies of their ministry, and advise their minister what policies to approve.
* discussion among the ministers
* amendments
* voting on adoption of policies (one vote for each minister; other ministry members don't vote)

When all the policies have been adopted, the cabinet ministers, after consulting with their committees, must decide one more thing: what form of government is most suited to carrying out these policies? (one party/ multi-party/ socialist or capitalist in orientation?)

Part 2: COLONIALISM & AFTER
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

What was colonialism?
What lasting effects has it had?
What different paths are there to develop a country?

OVERVIEW:

Part 2 examines different attitudes towards colonialism (the colonizer and the colonized), gives a brief history of the partitioning of Africa, and goes on to look at the structures established during this period which have a continuing impact on Africa today. It looks at different ways in which nations have chosen to pursue development, and some of the problems which have impeded both development and a democratic political structure: an insensitive elite, tribalism, and the resulting build-up of militarism.

Key Concepts:

- Just as there are many attitudes towards development, so there are many attitudes toward colonialism, generally depending on whether you are a colonizer or one of the colonized.
- The structures laid down by the colonial powers continue to haunt Africa:
  * borders which divided tribes and included warring neighbours in a single nation;
  * building of an African elite;
  * in some areas, build-up of unequal landholdings;
  * economies based on single-crop export;
  * transportation and communications systems geared to Europe, rather than to other African countries.
- Different African countries have chosen differing patterns of development (eg. Kenya and Tanzania); however, they have all had difficulties.
- Some continuing problems of democracy in Africa relate to the development of elites which are out of touch with the people, to continuing tribalism, and to a related build-up of militarism.

THE ACTIVITIES:

Afrik

This simulation game is based on Tanzania's experience. Students should not, however, know this until after the simulation. By understanding the Tanzanian situation at the time of independence, and by trying themselves to work through some of the development decisions with which the members of Tanzania's first government were faced, students come to a greater appreciation of the different kinds of models of development which are possible, and some of the difficulties in planning development.

Time Required:
The Afrik simulation can either take 2 hours (the ideal), or one period (the reality), if the pre-reading (Afrik: Facts & Figures) is assigned for homework the night before. Ideally, some pre-thinking could be encouraged by dividing students up into the 7 "ministries" at the time the reading is assigned. Students could then be asked to consider the questions ahead of time, and to come prepared with suggestions.

Materials needed:
A felt pen and large sheet of newsprint for each group, masking tape.

Time Breakdown:
For a 50 min. class, the time should be broken down as follows:

15 min.: Discussion within each group about appropriate policies; recording of these policies onto large newsprint sheet. Groups should record a maximum of 4 policies.

25 min.: Presentation of policies by ministers, discussion and voting to adopt. (Caution ministers that they should only spend 1 or 2 minutes presenting their policies.)

10 min.: Final discussion on type of political structure.

At the end of the period, the students should be told that the country in question, in all respects except for the fact that Afrik is an island, is Tanzania. Ask them to read TANZANIA: Grassroots Development (p. 10) to see how closely their suggested policies followed those adopted by Tanzania following independence.

Room Set-up: Arrange a row of 8 chairs in front of the room. Committees get into group huddles at the beginning of the class, and stay that way, for ease of consultation, throughout the class. If you have a large room, an alternative plan is to arrange the ministers' chairs in a wide circle, with their committees sitting behind them.

Teacher's Role: In moderating the cabinet meeting, the teacher should ask the students questions which encourage reflection on the problems and alternatives inherent in any choice. If the students, for instance, decide that they should build hospitals in all rural areas, they should be asked to consider the problem of how to pay for them. If they decide to invite foreign companies in to invest, they might be asked about the problem of money leaving the country, and of capital-intensive technology leading to unemployment; what rules might they want to set down for foreign companies?

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

Top Priority (NFB 106C 0181 065, 9 min.) This short, animated film is an excellent discussion-starter for the topic of militarism. It depicts a family of desert villagers, and the sacrifice of their hopes for a better future to the cause of military spending.

Pre-viewing suggestion:
Discuss the concept of "priority". What should be the development priorities of any government? Where does defence spending fit? Are there ever justifications for heavy defence spending? (Tanzania's invasion of Idi Amin's Uganda might be mentioned here.) How might the priorities of a government be different from those of the ordinary people? The urban from the rural?

Ask the class to view the film from the perspective of priorities, and the different points of view on what is "top priority".

Post-viewing discussion:
What were the different priorities here? Are there situations in which the poor farmer might feel that war is necessary? What opinions are there in Canada regarding the priority given social services spending and defence spending?

The Forgotten War (NFB 106C 0186 113, 30 min.) This recent film depicts the longest civil war in Africa, Eritrea's struggle for independence from Ethiopia. Although atypical in some respects (Eritrea was a colony, but Ethiopia was not; instead it was until recently a feudal state), the film provides an understanding of some of the causes and costs of war.

Illustration by Louise Bourbonnaise, CIDA, ***Insight***, 1988

Other Resources:

Youth, Peace & Power is a day-long workshop designed to show students the links between militarism and development, as well as linking personal empowerment with empowerment for social change. It contains a simulation, role-play scenarios, and case studies. Available for $7 from VIDEA (address in Part 10, page 12).

What Happens When Colonialism Persists?

Part 3

SOUTH AFRICA

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

contents

PART 3: South Africa

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

South Africa: an Extreme Case of Colonialism 1

South Africa Facts 2

What Exactly is Apartheid? 2-3

Homelands 3

Protest Past and Present 4

Children and Protest 4

Nelson Mandela: Victim or Terrorist? 5

South Africa Abroad:

Namibia 6

SADCC (Under the Thumb of South Africa) 7-8

What is Canada Doing About South Africa? 8-10

Opposing Viewpoints 11

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 12-13

TEACHER NOTES 14

SOUTH AFRICA

An Extreme Case of Colonialism

"Nelson Mandela, no man, woman or child of any colour is free until you are."

(Stevie Wonder, at the Mandela Freedomfest, Wembley Stadium, June 11, 1988)

Judging from the news clipping on the right, the government of South Africa is in trouble. While its army attempts incursions abroad, its police force struggles to keep the lid on rebellion at home. South Africa is besieged from without and within.

Many of the questions about the South African government, and why it acts as it does, can be understood if we view the white minority in South Africa as a colonial power, imposing its vision of development upon the large majority of black people. Maintaining control is becoming more and more difficult. Not only are blacks and sympathetic whites demonstrating in the streets of South African cities, but the country is surrounded by other nations which are critical of South Africa, which persist in calling for international sanctions against her, and which harbour "subversives", blacks who are openly working for an end to the apartheid system.

The suffering imposed by the system of **apartheid**, the white-dominated structure of rule in South Africa, extends from South Africa to all of the countries located in the southern tip of Africa. Let's see how apartheid works.

S. African planes, troops, slaughter hundreds in raids, Angola announces

Times-Colonist news services

HARARE—Angola's Marxist government said South African planes and troops killed hundreds of people in raids on two southern Angolan towns Thursday....

South Africa has drawn a veil of secrecy over the conduct of its latest military intervention in Angola's 13-year civil war.

Meanwhile, police arrested 14 white women protesting the crackdown on black opposition groups in South Africa, and authorities issued a banning order Friday to the last top official of the United Democratic Front still operating freely.

At the University of Cape Town, 2,000 students and staff assembled to denounce the government's bans on political activity by the UDF, the country's largest anti-apartheid coalition, and 17 other groups.

"The battle has only just begun," said Rev. Allan Boesak, one of the UDF's founders, at the campus rally. "We have decided we will resist. Our commitment starts right now." *(Victoria Times-Colonist, February 27, 1988)*

SOUTH AFRICA FACTS

AREA: 1,221,037 sq. km. (Compare to Canada: 9,976,139 sq. km.; B.C.: 948,596 sq. km; Ontario: 1,068,582 sq. km.; Quebec: 1,540,680 sq. km.)
87% of South Africa's land is reserved for whites, 13% for Africans.

POPULATION:

Total	African	White	Coloured	Indian
30,780,000	22,500,000	4,400,000	3,000,000	880,000

(Compare to Canada's population — 25,309,331, 1986 census)

—Note: In South Africa every person is officially classified by the government according to race. There are four basic racial categories: White, African, Coloured (mixed race) and Indian.

WAGES IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES: (Average monthly in U.S. dollars)

Industry	Africans	Whites	Coloureds	Indians
Mining (1983)	$260	$1,395	$430	$690
Manufacturing(1983)	$320	$1,290	$365	$460
Agriculture (1980)	$28-$40	n/a	n/a	n/a

—It was recently estimated that 75% of all African families in the rural areas live below the Poverty Datum Line — the minimum income that a family can live on.

EDUCATION:

Per capita spending on education (1980-81):

	Africans	Whites	Coloureds	Indians
	$170	$1,115	$310	$625
Teacher/Pupil Ratios:	1/48	1/18	1/27	1/24

HEALTH:

Infant mortality rate per 1000:

	Africans	Whites	Coloureds	Indians
	69 (urban) 282 (rural)	13	62	24

Doctors available:	Africans	Whites	Coloureds	Indians
	1:19,000	1:330	1:12,000	1:730

*(This fact sheet was adapted from Bigelow, Wm., **Strangers in Their Own Country**. New Jersey: Africa World Press, 1985)*

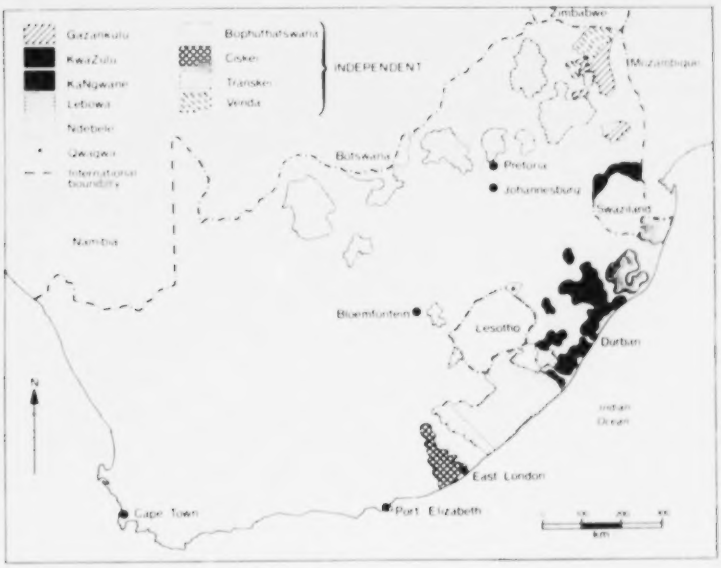
WHAT EXACTLY IS APARTHEID?

The word apartheid comes from the Afrikaner word "apartness", a philosophy of separating the races. When we think of apartheid, we often think of buses and washrooms designated "for whites only" or racially separate schools. Apartheid, however, goes deeper than this. While the official policy is for the separateness of the different races, in practice the South African economy depends on the races not being separate. The white Afrikaners require a plentiful supply of cheap, black labour to mine the resources of South Africa, to work in the factories and on white farms, and to cook, clean and babysit for them. Thus, the policy of apartheid can in many ways be labelled "continuing colonialism". A small, white minority dispossesses the black, in-

digenous people—the Khoikhoi and San peoples, the Zulu and the Xhosa—of much of their land, takes control of their resources, and leaves them no choice—if they wish to keep themselves alive—but to labour for the good of the whites in power.

HOMELANDS: a nice name for reserves

The cornerstone of apartheid is the concept of African homelands, or bantustans.



The 'homelands' of South Africa.

*From **AFRICA IN CRISIS** by Lloyd Timberlake*
(c) 1985, 1988 by Lloyd Timberlake
Published by Earthscan Publications Ltd., London

As you can see, they're not very big—13.4% of South Africa, to be exact. Yet 72.5% of the population is expected to live on them. That's like squeezing most of the population of Canada into an area about one-sixth the size of B.C. If you look closely, you'll notice that the homelands are not even in blocks; Bophuthatswana, for instance, consists of six widely separated pieces of land. The homelands—or bantustans, as they're sometimes called—are divided this way to exclude all industrial centres of any size, most transport lines, and most mineral resources. None has a port.

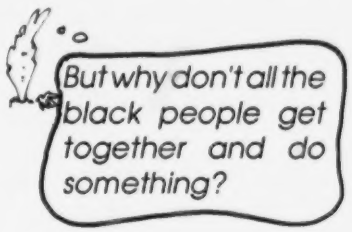
Because so many people have been forced onto so little land (at 66 people per square kilometre, the population density on the homelands is higher than any other African country except Rwanda), the land in the homelands, most of which is more suitable for grazing rather than for the growing of crops, has become more and more exhausted. Thus, black South Africans confined to their homelands are generally unable to make a living. About 50,000 children a year die of malnutrition in the homelands. However, there is a way out. Black adults are allowed to leave their homelands and work in the "white" areas. They cannot take their families with them. They must carry their pass books, stating that they have permission to be in a certain "white" area, at all times. If they are laid off by their employer, they must immediately return to their homelands, for their only reason to be in a "white" area is if they are working for a white person.

APARTHEID: THE RULES

The Vote: No black South African can vote in national elections.

Bantu Laws Amendment Act: Law permits labour bureau to remove or imprison "idle bantus" (unemployed Africans) from any urban area. Unless they were born in an urban area or have resided there without interruption for 15 years, or unless specifically given permission, Africans may legally live only in the bantustans (homelands).

Pass Laws: The South African government has recently announced an end to the infamous "pass laws", which required all black South Africans to carry identification at all times. However, things haven't really changed much. South Africans are still required to carry booklets which identify them by race, and which allow the South African Police to control the areas into which black South Africans may go.



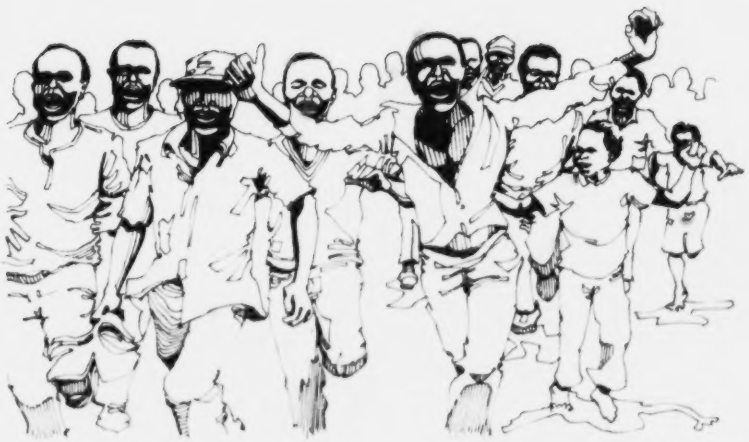
Since 1912, when the African National Congress (ANC) was founded, black people—and people of other races who support them—have worked for change. They have been impeded in their struggle by a system of laws which is aimed at suppressing protest, which bans assemblies and organizations, and arrests and detains its citizens without trial.

PROTEST
past & present

Sharpville, March 21, 1960: A large crowd of Africans gathered around a local police station to protest the pass laws. Although the gathering was a non-violent one, the police opened fire, and continued to fire for 10 to 30 seconds as the demonstrators fled. 67 were killed, most shot in the back. 186 were wounded.

Soweto, June 16, 1976: More than 10,000 students, aged 12 to 20, marched on Orlando Stadium in Soweto, outside Johannesburg. They were protesting the black education system, and in particular a new edict that part of their education was to be conducted in Afrikaans, the language of the Dutch-descended Nationalist government, a language which for most of them was a symbol of their oppression. Police greeted the group with tear-gas; students threw stones; police shot 13-year-old Hector Petersen in the back. The ensuing riots, which involved 30,000 young people, ended up in the killing of an estimated 1,000 of them.

Protest continues. In early 1984, many students began a boycott of their schools. Black consumer boycotts and a general strike have shown that Africans can shut down the South African economy. In June, 1986, protest had reached such proportions that the government decided to declare a state of emergency, which gave them even more sweeping powers, and allowed them to severely limit media coverage of their activities. Recently, the government banned 18 more organizations, including the largest anti-Apartheid group in South Africa, the United Democratic Front.



Pressure builds to release children

Anti-apartheid activists launched a campaign in early December for the release of South African children who have been imprisoned under the state of emergency.

The United Democratic Front (UDF) dedicated its Christmas Against the Emergency Boycott to youths who would be spending their holiday in prison, and women floated helium-filled balloons bearing the names of detained children above the jail in Durban.

More than 8,000 of the estimated 22,000 South Africans detained since the emergency was declared last June are under the age of 18, and 4,000 of them are still in jail, according to the Detainees' Parents Support Committee (DPSC), which tracks detentions and documents deaths and torture in South African prisons. However, the Black Sash, a women's civil rights group, has estimated the number of youths under age 17 being held at between 1,300 and 1,800.

The government acknowledged for the first time in early December that children were being detained but released a far lower figure. According to Police Chief Gen. Johan Coetze, 256 children between the ages of 11 and 15 were being held. He did not reveal the number of detainees between the ages of 16 and 19, however, and the DPSC thus described his statement as a "cynical sleight of hand."

Coetze also acknowledged that some parents have not been informed when their children were detained. This is because the young people sometimes provide false names and addresses to the police, he said. He denied charges that children are kept in the same cells as adults or that they are mistreated.

However, the DPSC has compiled reports revealing widespread torture and maltreatment of young detainees. The evidence was collected from young people who have been released and from friends and relatives who have visited detainees in prison. Reports from medical personnel have reinforced the DPSC's charges. *(Africa Report, January-February 1987)*

NELSON MANDELA: Victim or Terrorist?

The time: June 11, 1988. The place: Wembley Stadium, Britain. The stadium, a vast outdoor edifice, is filled with 72,000 people. Mostly young, sitting on each others' shoulders, they form a swaying, waving, multi-cultural mass of humanity. At the front of the stadium, from the huge stage, Stevie Wonder calls out a message which brings a great cheer from the crowd.

"Nelson Mandela, no man, woman or child of any colour is free until you are."

The date of this event is just before Nelson Mandela's seventieth birthday. He has been in prison for 25 years. The reason for the star-studded concert is to raise money for the anti-apartheid movement in South Africa, but also to put pressure on the South African government to release Nelson Mandela.

Who is Nelson Mandela?

- lawyer
- active member of the ANC—African National Congress
- 1952: organized the Defiance Campaign, which used Gandhi's principles of civil disobedience to challenge the laws of apartheid. This campaign resulted in the arrest of over 8,500 people.
- 1956: accused of treason, acquitted.
- 1961: participated in forming "Spear of the Nation", the armed branch of the ANC, which espoused sabotage as a method to overthrow the apartheid government.
- 1963: Charged with sabotage and conspiracy to overthrow the government by force, and sentenced to prison.
- 1988: Released from prison into hospital care, due to an illness; however, still remains under arrest.

A Birthday Message to Nelson Mandela

"I am greatly pleased to extend to you on your 70th birthday the best wishes of the Canadian people. Our greetings are imbued with sorrow in the knowledge that you are unable to celebrate this otherwise happy occasion in freedom.

"Your suffering is the suffering of all who are victims of apartheid, and today our thoughts are not only with you and your family but also with all of your countrymen yearning for peaceful change.

"We profoundly hope that you will soon be free and able to apply your strength, commitment and courage to the peaceful construction of a new non-racial South Africa."

Prime Minister Brian Mulroney
(quoted in the Globe & Mail, July 16, 1988)

Reply to the birthday message (from South African Foreign Minister Pik Botha)

"Mr. Mulroney comes dangerously close to aligning his Government with the forces of violence and terrorism in South Africa."
(Information from Globe & Mail, July 16, 1988)

Nelson Mandela, at his trial:

"We of the ANC had always stood for a democracy, with full participation regardless of someone's race. And we didn't want to drive the races further apart than they already were. But the hard facts were that fifty years of nonviolence had brought the African people nothing but more and more repressive laws, and fewer and fewer rights. . . ." [Mandela went on to explain that the ANC adopted the strategy of sabotage (blowing up of selected power and communications installations), which would put pressure on the government without involving loss of life.]

To many white South Africans, Nelson Mandela is a terrorist. To most black South Africans, Mandela is a symbol of legitimate resistance. What do you think?

South Africa Abroad

NAMIBIA
A Lingering Colonization

South Africa, as well as maintaining a rigid system of apartheid at home, has spread its activities into neighbouring countries.

The description in the CBC news report to the right sounds like South Africa, but it's not. It's a place called Namibia, not as well publicized as South Africa, but similar. And the reason people are protesting in Windhoek is that South Africa has been in control of Namibia since World War I, when the Germans who colonized it were defeated. Like South Africa, Namibia has been chopped up into ten "homelands", with 60% of the land, and a higher percentage of the fertile land, going to the "white tribe". Once again, the extreme poverty of the homelands guarantees a perpetual pool of cheap labour for the white-controlled economy.

In this resource-rich country, the fourth largest mineral exporter in the world, with huge quantities of diamonds, uranium, cadmium, lead, zinc and copper, African infant mortality runs at 163/1000, African life expectancy at 42 - 52, and health expenditure ranges between $5.40 and $66 per person per year. Comparable figures for the white population are IMR 21.6/1000, life expectancy 68-72, and health expenditure $270.

In 1978, the UN passed Resolution 435, which called for free, UN supervised elections. South Africa, until recently, refused to heed this Resolution, instead occupying Namibia with 90,000 South African troops, and suppressing the activities of SWAPO, the South West African Peoples Organization. A major obstacle to freedom for Namibia is that South Africa, backed by the U.S., has refused to grant independence for Namibia until Cuban soldiers leave Angola. Angola, alarmed by South African support of the rebel group UNITA, and by direct South African invasions of its territory, has been unwilling to lose the protection of Cuban soldiers.

On December 22, 1988, an agreement was signed by Angola, Cuba and South Africa. It outlines plans for a cessation of South African support for aggression against Angola, a withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola and independence for Namibia. On January 10, 1989, the first 3,000 Cuban troops left Angola. The people of Namibia, and of Angola, are holding their collective breaths as they wait to see whether the plan will proceed as promised. Perhaps the people of Nambia, for so long second-class citizens in their own country, will finally be free.

CBC News Report,
September 19, 1988

Namibians Demand Independence

[Description of a demonstration in Windhoek, capital of Namibia, to celebrate the 10th anniversary of the UN Resolution calling for Namibian independence:]

"The protestors marched for the centre of Windhoek carrying banners reading 'WE WANT INDEPENDENCE NOW; SWAPO WILL RULE'. SWAPO is the South West Africa Peoples Organization, the most popular political movement here. At the heavily guarded offices of the South African Administrator-General, the crowd stopped and sang at the gate. They chanted "435 now!", a reference to UN resolution 435, on Namibian independence. (Sound of crowd chanting,"435 now, 435 now, now!")

"Four van-loads of police screeched to a halt and without warning ran at the crowd, beating them. The police are...hitting at the crowd with...the long whips known as "quirts". (During this sentence, the announcer's voice is showing increasing anxiety; he is having difficulty speaking. It sounds as if he is running as he is speaking into his tape-recorder. In the background, you can hear screams, people running.) But the people... are falling back on the ground and are being hit. Indiscriminately now, they run away. The police van still at the scene on the road. (More screaming, a man's voice, shouting.)

"One policeman chased me down the road, whipping me with his quirt. One woman was beaten so badly she sustained a broken arm. One of the organizers of the march said, "We try to protest peacefully, and look what the response is!"

"For CBC news, this is Nigel Wrench, in Windhoek, Namibia."

Printed with permission of CBC Radio

SADCC
Under the Thumb of South Africa

The South African government is having neighbour trouble. In 1975, when Portugal granted independence to Angola and Mozambique, South Africa found two formerly sympathetic administrations replaced with two anti-apartheid, socialist governments. In 1980, a socialist, Robert Mugabe, was elected Prime Minister of newly-independent Zimbabwe. To top it all off, in the same year, the nine nations surrounding (and surrounded by) South Africa joined to form SADCC (South African Development Coordination Conference), designed to promote regional economic cooperation and reduce their dependence on South Africa.

The SADCC countries—Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe*—share a problem of South African dependency. A 1986 Canadian study estimated that 25% of the total trade of these 9 countries in 1985 was with South Africa, and that another 60% passed through South African ports. Zambia, for instance, got two-thirds of its vital imports either from South Africa or through South African ports in 1985.

*** Another term used to describe six of these countries — Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe— is the *Frontline States*. This term recognizes that these countries bear the greatest burden of South African aggression.**

This situation leaves these countries, all of which are opposed to apartheid, and some of which lend support to SWAPO in Namibia and the ANC in South Africa, very vulnerable.

South Africa uses the dependence of the SADCC countries to exert pressure on them:

♦ non-military strategies:

* withholding commodities such as food, oil and spare parts;
* sending home migrant labourers, who come to S.A. from those countries to work, mainly in the mines;
* closing its borders;
* cutting off energy supplies to Mozambique, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.

♦ military strategies:

* support for anti-government fighters in five countries;
* destruction of infrastructure involved in food production, marketing, energy and social services;
* attacks on three capital cities (Masseru, Maputo and Gaborone)
* outright invasion of parts of Angola.

Mozambique and Angola are both under constant attack by South African-supported rebels (the MNR—Mozambiquan National Resistance—in Mozambique and UNITA in Angola) who routinely destroy farms, villages, schools and health clinics. An estimated 735,000

of their citizens, many of them children, have died in this struggle, some from direct attacks, others from hunger when crops have been destroyed and supply trucks blown up. The estimated cost to the nine SADCC countries of fighting South African aggression from 1980 to 1986 is $25 billion U.S. Mozambique, a country which was struggling to bring health, education and nutrition to its people, *must now spend 42% of its GNP on defence. Special effort has been* made by the S.A.-backed rebels to destroy the transportation links—the railways through Mozambique and Angola, which would help rid SADCC countries of their transportation reliance on South Africa.

The December/88 agreement between Angola, Namibia and Cuba (see p. 6) has given new hope to the people of Angola. Will South Africa stop supporting UNITA? Is there really hope for peace? To the people of Mozambique, the future looks grimmer. For them, it seems that, while the apartheid regime remains in power in Pretoria, the peoples of Southern Africa will know no peace.

(Information Sources: Canadian Institute for International Peace and Security, June 1988, CUSO Journal, Summer 1987)

South African-Sponsored Aggression: The Human Costs

In Mozambique, 585 health posts and health centres—almost half the total—have been destroyed since 1982. Over a third of all schools have also been wrecked or abandoned, leaving more than 500,000 primary-school children without education.

In Mozambique and Angola, health policies of the late 1970s were reducing the number of child deaths. Now the trend has been reversed. "Every four minutes," says a UNICEF report, "a small Angolan or Mozambican child was lost who otherwise would have lived."

(Information from UNICEF, The State of the World's Children 1988)

Amputees — victims of MNR terrorism — are a common sight in war-torn Mozambique.

WHAT IS CANADA DOING ABOUT SOUTH AFRICA?

In October 1988, the Canadian government decided to provide non-lethal aid to the front-line states bordering South Africa, to help them in military defence.

The new aid projects—to be monitored by the Canadian International Development Agency—included funding, food, clothing, fuel, communications equipment and spare parts for things such as jeeps.

Walter McLean, Special Canadian envoy to the UN and Africa:

"You can't put in money to build a hospital to have it blown up the next day, or build a railway to transport agricultural products, only to have it blown out."

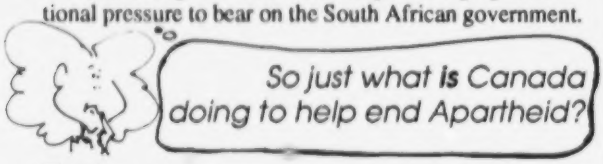
Robert Mugabe, president of Zimbabwe:

"a bold stand"

(information from Times-Colonist: October 5, 1988)

"We understand the ANC's contention—'You ask us to drop our arms to do what? ...Accept more repression? Accept more brutality from the apartheid state that is armed to the teeth?' "
(Prime Minister Brian Mulroney, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe, January 30, 1987)

Canada has taken a strong stand against apartheid. On a number of occasions, Mr. Mulroney has stated that Canada is prepared to invoke total diplomatic and economic sanctions against South Africa. The Frontline States look to Canada to give world leadership in bringing international pressure to bear on the South African government.



Trade:

1977: Canada closes its trade offices in Johannesburg and Cape Town, and eliminates Export Development Corporation support for trade with South Africa. (Until now taxpayers' money has been used to help Canadian companies develop trading links with the South African government.)

1978: The Canadian government issues a code of conduct to guide the activities of Canadian corporations in South Africa; however this code is purely voluntary.

1980: Canada pulls out of a preferential trade agreement with South Africa. However, private companies are still free to trade with South Africa.

1986: Canada bans imports of South African agricultural products (worth about $75 million), iron, coal and uranium. The federal government will no longer purchase South African products or allow government contracts with South African companies; it asks the provinces to follow suit.

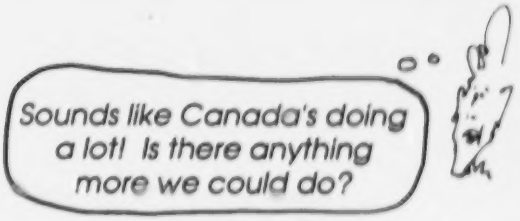
Aid:

1984: Canada increases its aid to SADCC countries. 18 projects, stressing food and agriculture, transport and communications, energy, and education, are approved; they total $90 million. In 1985-86, Canada disburses $9.11 million to SADCC.

1988: Canada increases non-lethal aid to the Frontline States, including military-related assistance.

Visas:

1988: Canada bars all South African athletes from Canada.



Many people think that Canada could be doing more. Here are some of the issues:

The Embassy:

Embassy in S. Africa not needed, Woods says

BY ANN SILVERSIDES

The Globe and Mail

The former newspaper editor whose experiences formed the basis of the movie Cry Freedom says Canada should close its embassy in South Africa.

"Absolutely, they should take it out," Donald Woods said in an interview yesterday after External Affairs Minister Joe Clark officially opened an exhibit on censorship in South Africa at Toronto City Hall.

Mr. Clark is in Toronto as host of Commonwealth foreign ministers meeting to discuss ways of combating Pretoria's propaganda and censorship.

Mr. Clark told a press conference that, while he is prepared to do so, he has no plans now to close the embassy in South Africa. The embassy is useful in allowing Canada to follow and influence events in South Africa, he said.

(The Globe and Mail, August 2, 1988)

Sanctions:

The term "sanctions" refers to the cutting off of trade relations and withdrawing investment from a country, so that its economy will suffer. So far, Canada's trade stoppages have been minor; some people favour full sanctions. Here are the ideas of some of the people involved:

"Don't just fatten us up so the Boers can come and slaughter us." (Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia, at the Commonwealth Conference, 1987, referring to Britain's stance on increased assistance to the Frontline States, but refusal to institute sanctions)

"Sanctions will harm South Africa's blacks more than the whites." (Margaret Thatcher, Prime Minister of Britain)

(Continued next page)

"It is sometimes argued by well meaning people abroad, that if the world boycotts South Africa, we, the working people, will suffer most. Even if this were true—and we do not believe it—let us assure our well wishers that we do not shrink from any hardship in the cause of freedom . . . The working people of our country do not eat imported food or wear foreign clothes; nor do we benefit from the export of South African mealies, wool, wine or gold. To our friends abroad we say that trafficking in the fruits of apartheid can never be in the interests of the workers who suffer under apartheid."
(SACTU — South African Congress of Trade Unions, 1963)

"By and large, the presence of American companies does a lot of good. They pay high wages and offer good conditions. As a result, other companies have to raise wages and improve conditions to remain competitive in the labour market."
(Gatsha Buthelezi, Chief Minister of KwaZulu homeland)

"Sanctions remain the single most important peaceful path to change in South Africa. As South Africa draws comfort from the absence of more rigorous sanctions, so it grows more ruthless in trampling on humanity....In the absence of sanctions, apartheid will persist."
(Sir Shridath Ramphal, Commonwealth Secretary-General, at the meeting of Toronto Commonwealth Ministers, Toronto, August 3, 1988)

The question of whether or not Canada should impose sanctions is not necessarily an all-or-nothing question. If we were to increase our sanctions, where should we be sure we cut off supplies? (Think of the institutions in South Africa which do the most to uphold apartheid, and think of what supplies they might need.)

Trade:

Imports:

1986: Canada imported goods worth $318 million from South Africa.
1987: The total imports decreased to $89.4 million.
1988: South African imports rose to $149 million.
(Information: Statistics Canada)

Exports:

Canadian exports to South Africa in 1986 totalled $151 million. They included sulpher from Alberta and B.C., which is used for making explosives, wheat, B.C. woodpulp and machinery and equipment.

Investment:

16 companies presently have direct investments in South Africa, down from 30 companies in the early 1980s. The wages paid by these companies range from a high of $1.55 an hour, paid by Champion Road Machinery, an affiliate of Champion Road Machinery of Goderich, Ontario, to a low of $.93 per hour, paid by the South African Motor Corporation, an affiliate of Ford Canada, of Oakville, Ontario.
(Information from Ken Traynor, "Trafficking in Apartheid", CUSO Journal, Summer 1987)

INDIVIDUAL ACTION:

There are a lot of people in Canada working to bring more attention to the apartheid system in South Africa, and to encourage the Canadian government to implement stronger sanctions. Here's a success story of some people who won a small victory against the apartheid system.

Cominco in Trail [B.C.] had an order from the University of Pretoria to ship some crystals that can be used in the manufacture of infrared detectors for satellites and weapons-sighting systems and for tracer bullets for small arms....

Over a two-month period, research was carried out [by members of the Anti-Apartheid Network in Vancouver], contacts were made with MP Howard McCurdy's office in Ottawa, there was frequent communication with people working in the Kootenays...McCurdy asked questions in the House on two occasions, ensuring that Joe Clark was aware of the proposed shipment. The External Affairs Department still approved an export permit.

At the point the shipment was about to be sent off, Cominco's action was publicized.

Two people in Nelson, Donna Macdonald and Greg Utzig, had felt the effects of South Africa's disruption of its neighbours when they were working with CUSO in Mozambique. They now had a chance to take some counteraction.

They prepared a leaflet about what Cominco was doing and handed it out at the federal NDP nomination meeting for the area. The press was there, as well as many of the unionized workers at Cominco.

The story was picked up by the local press. Cominco made immediate denials that it was making shipments to South Africa, but that story was soon changed.

A press release was issued by the Anti-apartheid Network in Vancouver, and the story was picked up by CBC radio and television. By the time the story was carried on the TV newscast, Cominco had not only admitted that it had an order, but it had announced that it was halting the shipment.
(Larry Kuehn, "...Empty Actions," New Directions, July/August 1988.

Not all Canadians feel the same way about Apartheid.

GORDE HUNTER

ONE MAN'S OPINION

ALL WE HEAR is the negative. There is, if you believe the propagandists, nothing good about South Africa. A racist white regime keeping the blacks in poverty, refusing them the rights of democracy.

The good is never mentioned.

But a group, Women for South Africa, which, incidentally, is a multicultural movement, says it is proud of the achievements of South African people and their country. To this end they recently issued a 100-item article—100 good things about South Africa. I give you a selected few.

- In the black enclave of Soweto, house rentals average 12 per cent of income, whereas most Third World rentals go as high as 40 per cent. The world average is 25 per cent.
- Wages of black South Africans are four times higher than those in the rest of Africa.
- South Africa has the most comprehensive health service plan on the African continent and has the lowest infant mortality rate.
- In the years 1969 through 1983, the number of black women in professions almost tripled and black female medical and dental practitioners increased by 550 per cent. Black female university and college professors increased from 20 to 751.
- Maybe not a big thing, but there are more cars in Soweto than in all of the Soviet Union.
- More money is spent on education than on defence and South Africa boasts a 60-per-cent literacy rate. Close to 70 per cent of all black children are in school and there are no fewer than 380 schools in Soweto. In the 12 to 22 age bracket, the literacy rate is 80 per cent.
- South Africa has complete freedom of worship.
- Improvements, while maybe too slow for the liking of some, have been happening and 100 discriminatory laws have been abolished in recent years—such as all restrictions in sport. University education is no longer segregated and the prohibition of mixed marriages has been repealed. Racial barriers in hotels, restaurants and theatres no longer exist.
- Baragwanath, in Soweto, is the largest (700 doctors, 2,900 beds) hospital in the Southern Hemisphere....
- All South Africans are completely free to join any political organization as long as it does not espouse violence. All workers can become members of registered unions [without interference from any government department] and they are allowed to participate in legal strikes....

I have just touched the surface of the 100 items listed by Women for South Africa, but that touching should be enough to show the country is hardly what liberals have painted it in recent years.

Mind you all the above has undoubtedly been lost on such as Joe Clark, which is not surprising when you consider his rather desultory performance as prime minister of Canada.

(Times-Colonist, August 18, 1988)

CHECKING IT OUT:

The source: ***What questions might you want to ask about Women for South Africa?***

Statistics: ***Is "lowest infant mortality" referring to black babies, or all babies? Are there any other statistics you would like to question?***

Using terms: ***What might you want to know about a "registered" union? a "legal" strike"?***

Things unsaid: ***What rights are black people asking for which aren't mentioned here?***

A Response:

A Letter to the Editor:

I must congratulate you on publishing Gorde Hunter's column Aug. 18.

What he says there is the unvarnished truth about South Africa. Why is the better side never mentioned? Without the white man's knowledge, wealth and energy, Africa would still be the "Dark Continent." The early pioneers were urged by the governments, and the prospect of freedom and opportunity, to go out and develop the unknown areas of the world. They showed great courage and determination, and have very little of which to be really ashamed, in doing so.

Do you think that the whites of either America or Canada would calmly hand over everything they have built up if the Indians were ever to outnumber the whites?

Mrs. J.

(Times-Colonist, August 31, 1988)

ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING UNDER APARTHEID:

Read pages 1 to 3. Working with a small group, make up a class simulation (a simulation is a cross between a game and a role-play) to illustrate the realities of apartheid. You may want to consider the following aspects of apartheid:

Land and Race Distribution (Think how you would have to divide your classroom in order to simulate the distribution. How many black South Africans, and how many whites? How many "black" students would have to fit on what area of floor?)

Wealth distribution (Perhaps you might want to use tokens, or candy, to show the distribution of wealth.)

Work situation (What bargain will "black" students who want to move off their small area of floor have to make with the "white" students? What kind of payment will they get? What will happen if they act disrespectful of the "white" students?)

2. BEING YOUNG IN SOUTH AFRICA:

After reading page 4, spend a few minutes thinking about the role of children and teenagers in the South African struggle. Why do you think that young people have been so active in the fight against apartheid? Do you feel that the South African government may be justified in jailing children and youths? Should children be treated any differently from adults? If so, why?

Then choose one of the following activities:

a) You are a white South African policeman, who was present at the Soweto uprising in 1976, and is still active in arresting and imprisoning protestors ("disturbers of the peace"), among whom are many children and teenagers. Although you don't like arresting children and teens, it is they who are often the first ones to stone policemen. Write a narrative relating some of your experiences and your concerns about the system.

b) Write a letter to President Botha, Union Building, Pretoria, South Africa, to protest the system of imprisonment of children and teens. (Be sure you send the letter!)

3. NELSON MANDELA: Victim or terrorist?

Nelson Mandela and the ANC (African National Congress) are designated "terrorists" by the South African government. To Nelson Mandela and many South Africans, it is the South African government which is "terrorist", and they are reacting in legitimate self-defense. Do you think that sabotage or other forms of violence are justified in the face of repression?

After reading pages 4 to 6, hold a group discussion or a class debate, taking one of the following points of view:

"Violence is never justified."

"Violence may be justified in cases where all other recourse has failed."

4. CANADA AND SOUTH AFRICA:

In 1987, President Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia begged Commonwealth members, "Don't just fatten us up so the Boers (white South Africans) can come and slaughter us." Kaunda was referring to a policy of helping the Frontline States with aid, but refusing, in his view, to deal with the root of the problem, South African aggression. Leaders of the Frontline States have repeatedly urged Commonwealth countries and the U.S. to adopt complete sanctions against South Africa.

Read about Canada's policy on South Africa and the Frontline States (pages 8 to 10). Either in small groups or individually, consider Canada's policy, and produce a position paper either defending or criticizing Canada's stand.

5. OPINIONS:

On page 11, read the views of two Canadians who take an alternative view of the South African government. Consider the questions in the shaded box; think about the material you've read about South Africa. Write a letter of response to Gorde Hunter or Mrs. J., either agreeing or disagreeing with what they've written.

6. APARTHEID IN CANADA?

Manitoba Chief Requests South African Foreign Aid

In March, 1987, Peguis Indian Chief Louis Stevenson requested $79 million in foreign aid from South Africa to help the people of his reserve, who were living in poverty. Glenn Babb, South Africa's Ambassador to Canada, accepted Stevenson's invitation to visit the Manitoba reserve.

Other Indian leaders distanced themselves from Chief Stevenson's request. They expressed their total opposition to the apartheid policies in South Africa. They did, however, express sympathy for the motives behind the Peguis leader's action. Canada has consistently expressed horror at the conditions of black people in South Africa; what about the conditions of Canada's native people? In Johannesburg, the story of Chief Stevenson's requestion for South African foreign aid was front-page news. Canada, it was felt, should shut up about racism until its own house was in order.

(information from Globe and Mail, March 6/87, and September 5/87)

LIFE EXPECTANCY FIGURES

White South African: 68
Black South African: 55
Average Canadian: 75.5 (71.9-Male; 79.0-Female)
Native Indian Canadian: 70 (62.4-Male; 77.5-Female)

(Figures from IDAFSA, 1983, and Indian and Northern Affairs, *Mortal Projections of Registered Indians*, 1982-1996)

Jobless rates running up to 94% on reserves

Northern Indian communities [in Manitoba] find the obstacles to economic development practically insurmountable. The cost of hydro and transportation are prohibitive.

(Information from Globe and Mail, Oct. 24, 1987)

Housing on reserves is assailed in report

BY GEOFFREY YORK
The Globe and Mail
WINNIPEG

More than 2,500 houses on Canadian Indian reserves are occupied by two or more families, the report of a federal study says...

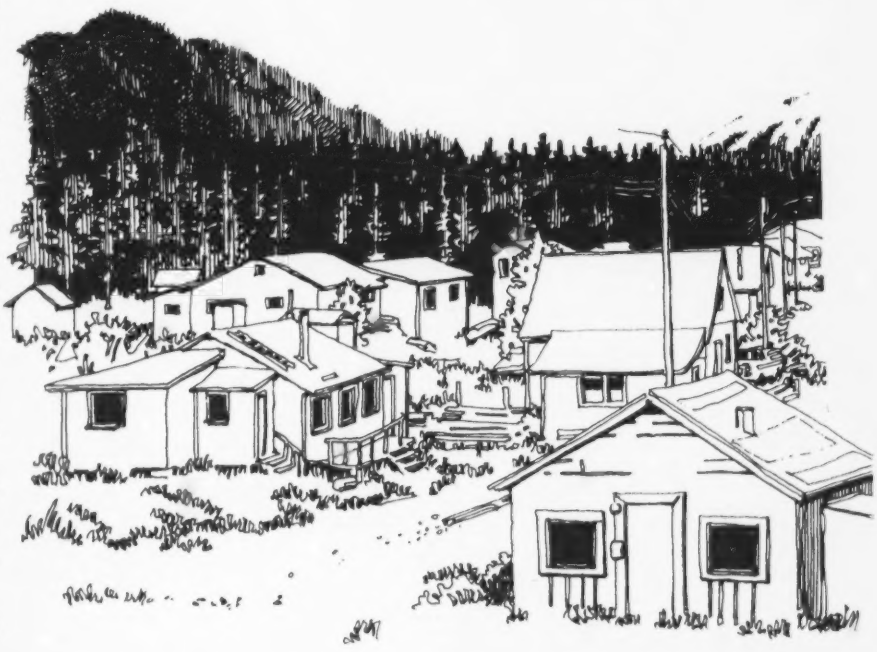
More than half of all houses on Canadian Indian reserves have no central heating and almost a third have no bathrooms, according to the study commissioned by the Indian Affairs Department. (Based on 1981 Canadian census statistics)

What are the similarities between the apartheid system, and the Indian reserve system in Canada? What are the differences? (You may want to consider the economic viability of Indian reserves (is it possible to make a living on the reserves?), living conditions on reserves, continuing land-claim struggles, destruction of native values, racism, human rights such as voting, possibility of economic advancement, etc.)

Write a short article, or prepare a class debate, on this topic:

The Canadian treatment of its native people can justly be termed "Canadian apartheid".

(Take a position for or against.)



Part 3: SOUTH AFRICA
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

Why is there so much unrest in South Africa today?
In what way is the South African struggle an anti-colonialist struggle?
Who is the terrorist in South Africa?
What should Canada's response be?

OVERVIEW:

Part 3 focuses on the struggle in Southern Africa, both internally (within South Africa) and externally (in Namibia and the SADCC countries). It examines the question of violence, using Nelson Mandela as an example: Is violence ever justified? Canada's response to the South African struggle is examined, and examples of the opinions of dissenting Canadians— both pro- and anti- South African government – are given.

Key Concepts:

- Apartheid is a system which embodies basic inequity between races.
- The Homelands, or Bantustans, ensure that black South Africans will be a source of cheap labour in South Africa.
- There is a long history of protest against apartheid, and young people—children and teens—have been prominant in this protest. Thousands of children are presently imprisoned in South Africa.
- Nelson Mandela is a symbol to the whites of terrorism and to the blacks of legitimate struggle. The ANC (African National Congress) uses sabotage—destruction of installations—as a form of protest.
- South Africa has a colony, Namibia, which it illegally occupies. Right now the world is watching to see if the agreement to withdraw and hold elections (signed in December, 1988) will be honoured.
- The countries around South Africa—the SADCC countries—are economically dependent on South Africa in many ways. This makes them very vulnerable to routine military and non-military harassment by S. Africa.
- Canada's policy has been one of limited sanctions and support for the Frontline States. Some people feel that Canada should be doing more, and are taking individual action to pressure the Canadian government.
- Some Canadians support the actions of the South African government, and criticize the Canadian government for not being more supportive of it.
- Canadian Indian leaders have noted a parallel between apartheid and the situation on Canada's reserves. Students are asked to evaluate this claim.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES:

One cannot hope, in 14 pages, to do more than briefly touch on many of the issues of Southern African apartheid and Canada's response to it. An excellent curriculum resource for further study is

Strangers in Their Own Country, William Bigelow, Africa World Press,
P.O. Box 1892, Trenton, New Jersey 08608.
(In Canada, this Guide is distributed by the B.C.T.F. Lesson Aids Service
catalogue number 2603—Phone 1-800-663-9163 for information)

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES: Although the National Film Board has not produced any films relating to South Africa, there are a number of excellent films and videos available. Contact the Learner Centre nearest you (see list in Part 10, pages 12-13), and ask them what resources are available.

Why is Africa Poor?

"MAY I OFFER YOU A FRIENDLY WORD OF ADVICE?"

Part 4

TRADE, AID & DEBT

contents

Part 4: Trade, Aid & Debt

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Trade, Aid & Debt 1

Trade and Commodities:

- **An Overview** 2-3
- **Zambia: a Single Commodity Economy** 3-4
- **Meanwhile, Back in Canada** 4
- **Close-Up on Coffee** 5

Debt:

- **An Overview** 5
- **Who's To Blame?** 6
- **Repaying the Debt: The Costs** 7
- **What Can Be Done About It?** 8
- **What is Canada Doing?** 8

Multilateral Institutions:

- **World Bank** 9
- **IMF** 10

Aid:

- **An Overview** 11
- **Aid in a Nutshell: Bilateral/ Multilateral/ NGO** 11
- **What's Good Aid? Case Studies** 11-12
- **Aid: The Big Questions:**
  - **Criteria for Evaluating Aid Projects** 12-13
- **On Technology** 13
- **Who Benefits? Tied Aid** 13
- **Putting in Our Two Cents:**
  - **Canada's Aid Spending** 13

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 14-15

TEACHER NOTES 16-17

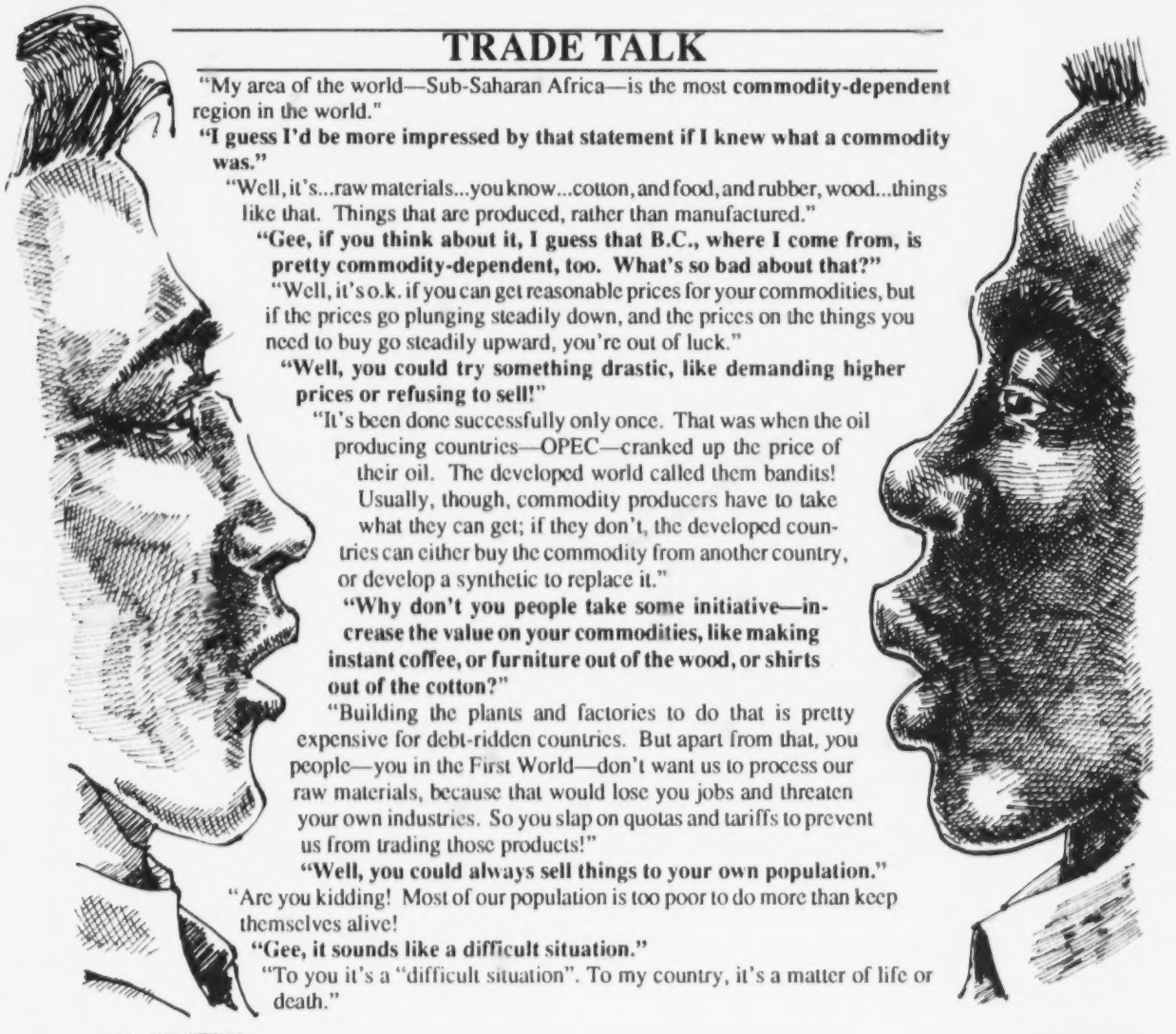
AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 16-17

TRADE, AID & DEBT

Official to citizen: "You'll have to tighten your belt."
Citizen to official: "I can't. I ate it yesterday."
(Third World Joke)

Africa is in economic trouble. Most of sub-Saharan Africa has shown no significant economic progress since 1980. Many Africans have less and less to eat; one in four is malnourished. Of the 40 countries in the world designated by the United Nations as "least developed countries"—the very poorest countries—27 are African. At the end of 1987, Africa owed $137.8 billion in debt.

While we can blame some of the problem on the weather, the economic situation of Africa is primarily a result of two related issues: trade and debt.



TRADE TALK

"My area of the world—Sub-Saharan Africa—is the most **commodity-dependent** region in the world."

"I guess I'd be more impressed by that statement if I knew what a commodity was."

"Well, it's...raw materials...you know...cotton, and food, and rubber, wood...things like that. Things that are produced, rather than manufactured."

"Gee, if you think about it, I guess that B.C., where I come from, is pretty commodity-dependent, too. What's so bad about that?"

"Well, it's o.k. if you can get reasonable prices for your commodities, but if the prices go plunging steadily down, and the prices on the things you need to buy go steadily upward, you're out of luck."

"Well, you could try something drastic, like demanding higher prices or refusing to sell!"

"It's been done successfully only once. That was when the oil producing countries—OPEC—cranked up the price of their oil. The developed world called them bandits! Usually, though, commodity producers have to take what they can get; if they don't, the developed countries can either buy the commodity from another country, or develop a synthetic to replace it."

"Why don't you people take some initiative—increase the value on your commodities, like making instant coffee, or furniture out of the wood, or shirts out of the cotton?"

"Building the plants and factories to do that is pretty expensive for debt-ridden countries. But apart from that, you people—you in the First World—don't want us to process our raw materials, because that would lose you jobs and threaten your own industries. So you slap on quotas and tariffs to prevent us from trading those products!"

"Well, you could always sell things to your own population."

"Are you kidding! Most of our population is too poor to do more than keep themselves alive!

"Gee, it sounds like a difficult situation."

"To you it's a "difficult situation". To my country, it's a matter of life or death."

TRADE and COMMODITIES:

Developing countries ". . .produce what they do not consume and consume what they do not produce."

(Samir Amin, political economist and Director of the UN Institute for Africa)

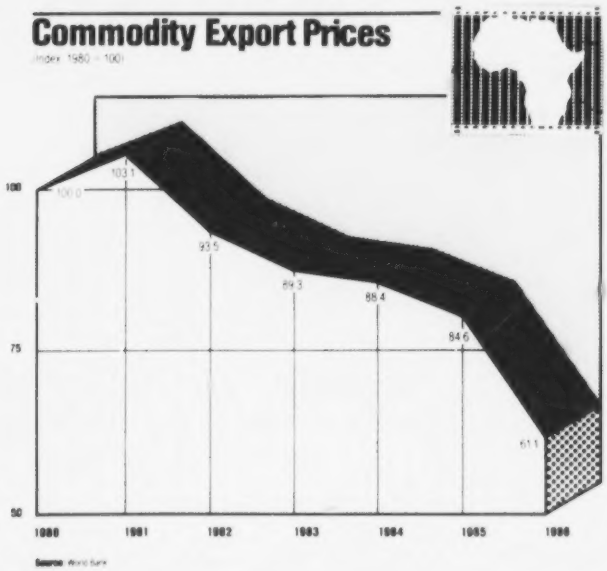
According to a well-known economist, David Ricardo, trade should work to the benefit of all.

"Under a system of perfectly free trade, each country devotes its capital and labour to such employments as are beneficial to each. This pursuit of individual advantage is admirably connected with the universal good of the whole." *(David Ricardo)*

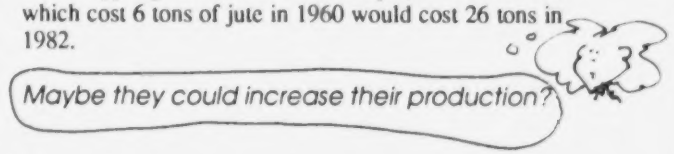
What Ricardo, a First World economist, overlooks, is that some people derive more of the "universal good" than others. To the people of the Third World, international trade seems often like trying to catch up in a game where the others all got a head start, and the rules have been made to put you at an ever-increasing disadvantage.

African countries are dependent on commodities for their exports. In 1986, 88% of the exports of Sub-Saharan African countries were primary commodities. Many of the countries rely on one or two commodities for their income. (As discussed in Part 2: Colonialism & After, this economic pattern of single-export dependence was set up in colonial times.) If they could be assured of receiving stable, reasonable prices for their goods, then Ricardo's statement, quoted above, would indeed apply. They would be able to pay for their imports with the foreign exchange earned from the sale of their exports.

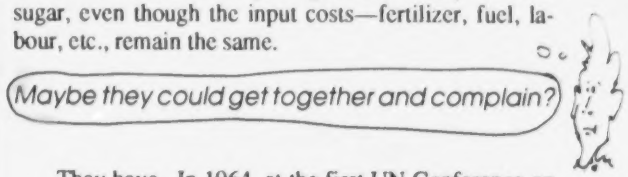
African countries, however, have had very little control over what prices are paid for their commodities. These prices are generally set in London or New York. The graph below shows what has happened to the prices of African commodities in the 1980s.



At the same time, the price of manufactured goods (90% of which are produced by the North), went up. In the jargon of economics, this ratio between the price received for exports, and the price required for imports, is known as ***terms of trade***. The lack of purchasing power resulting from declining terms of trade for African countries has been crippling. As a concrete example, an 8-ton truck which cost 6 tons of jute in 1960 would cost 26 tons in 1982.



Production of many commodities has increased in the past 20 years. But it hasn't always helped. Take sugar, for instance. What happens when countries all start increasing their sugar production at once? The "bottom falls out of the market", and everyone gets less money for their sugar, even though the input costs—fertilizer, fuel, labour, etc., remain the same.



They have. In 1964, at the first UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), a "Group of 77" poorer countries (now numbering over 100) was formed to bargain for better trading conditions. In 1973, these countries outlined a ***New International Economic Order*** (NIEO), which called for fairer prices for their commodities, and more access to the markets of the North.

Then in 1976, UNCTAD put forward a proposal for an **Integrated Program for Commodities**, with a **Common Fund** to help stabilise commodity prices. They listed 18 different commodities for which they would try to get agreements between exporting and importing nations. The Common Fund would help finance "buffer stocks". In

years of surplus when prices were low, commodities could be bought with the fund, and stored until the prices rose again.

What progress has been made since the 70s in the areas of the NIEO and the Integrated Program for Commodities? The NIEO is a dead issue. The First World countries consistently voted against the proposals put forward by UNCTAD to bring it about. The Integrated Program for Commodities has fared a little better. By 1987, International Commodity Agreements had been negotiated for seven of the 18 commodities listed for action: cocoa, coffee, sugar, natural rubber, tin, jute, and tropical timber. At the end of 1987, the Common Fund for Commodities was struggling to start up, but was still opposed by the U.S., Britain and Canada, who were not willing to be party to any attempt by Third World nations to boost prices artificially.

From a Third World perspective, progress has been slow and meagre. At the 1983 UNCTAD Conference, Ambassador Said Osman of Somalia said:

"The West was not willing to make any advances from previous positions and in some areas refused to comply with existing undertakings."

What if they tried to export more manufactured goods?

In order to add to the amount of money they get from their raw materials, developing countries have attempted to increase the level of processing. However, they've come up against a major stumbling block in the form of **tariffs**. Palm oil, a major African export, faces only a 4% tariff when it comes to the European Common Market in its crude form, but is subject to a 12% tariff if it is partly refined. **Import quotas**, which place a limit on the quantities of goods which may be imported, are another way the First World has of encouraging the Third World to remain exporters of raw commodities.

(Information sources: "Tackling the Commodity Issue," Africa Recovery, May-Aug/87, N. Fyson, The Development Puzzle, P. Hopkinson, Trade and Development, VIDEA Newsletter, Oct./88)

ZAMBIA: a single commodity economy:

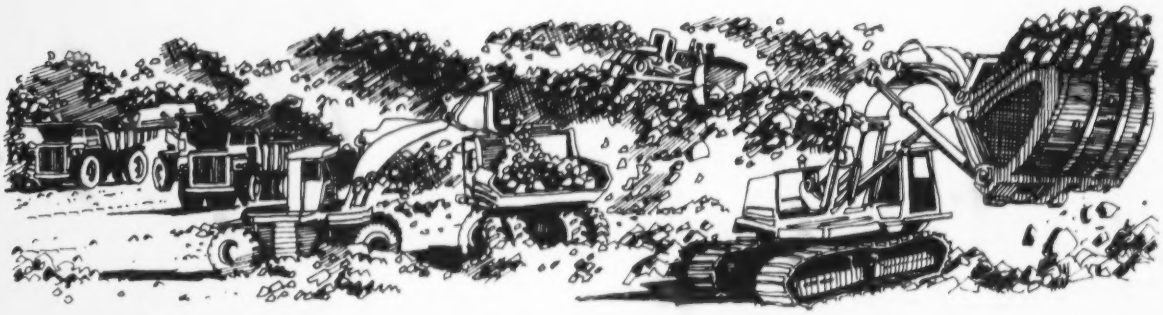
Over 90% of Zambia's foreign exchange comes from copper. In the 1960s, when the price of copper was high, Zambia was one of Africa's wealthiest countries. It was sometimes called "Africa's Switzerland", because of its highways, factories, office buildings, schools and hospitals. In 1970, Zambia had a positive balance of trade of $108 million; in 1986, Zambia had a deficit of $302 million, and a total external debt of $5,300 million.

Why is Zambia now having such a hard time?

In the early 1920s, Zambia's rich copper deposits were exploited by the British colonialists. To obtain labour for the mines, the colonial authorities imposed a hut tax, which forced peasant farmers to go to the mines to earn cash. Soon large populations sprang up around the mines and the colonial government kept urban food prices attractively low. The result? Zambia now has the highest percentage of urbanized population in Africa; 45% of her people live in cities. Rural agricultural production has declined. In 1955, 20% of the country's food was imported; today nearly 50% is imported.

In the mid-1970s, the price of copper slumped. Zambia took on huge loans, hoping that things would improve. Debt repayments now absorb nearly 60% of export earnings. Because most of Zambia's industries depend on imported raw materials and machinery, the lack of foreign currency has reduced the industries to functioning at 30% capacity.

In 1986, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which had lent Zambia an estimated $800 million, pressured the government to devalue their currency, cut government spending on social services and keep wages at a fixed rate while subsidies on food were ended and food prices were allowed to increase dramatically. In December 1986, the price of maize meal was increased 120%. Riots



ensued; 15 people were killed. President Kenneth Kaunda withdrew from the IMF, telling Zambians that his government would restructure the economy in "a more humane way".

Kaunda's plan includes a 10% ceiling on debt-repayment, and a restriction on imports of luxury items, so that scarce foreign exchange can be reserved for essential purchases. There will be yet more investment in copper mining, to pay for new machinery to extract lower grade ore since the copper, mined for over 60 years, has now declined in quality. Agriculture is to be encouraged, but food in Zambia is priced low, which is fine for the urbanites, but does not encourage farmers to grow more.

Whatever diversification of the economy is attempted, it needs to be done quickly. Mining experts say that by the year 2,000 the copper deposits presently being mined will be exhausted.

(Information sources: Meldrum, A. "Going it Alone," Africa Report, Nov.-Dec. 1987, Mudenda, B. "Zambia Says No to the IMF," AfricAsia, June 1987, New Internationalist, May 1988)

Zambia: The impact of economic recession

- **75% decline in terms of trade since 1970**
- **75% decline in government capital expenditure, 1975-79**
- **21% decline in private consumption**
- **social expenditure cut, mostly in education:**
  1970: education 30% of public expenditure;
  1980: education 20% of public expenditure
- **In Northern Province, the number of children's clinics fell from 122 to 86, 1973-1977; children's weight for age showed a marked decline.**

Source: The Impact of World Recession on Children, UNICEF, 1984

Meanwhile, back in Canada . . .

In 1985, 48% of Canada's export earnings came from commodities, the largest of which is forest products.

In 1980, MacMillan Bloedel employed 21,000 people; now it employs less than 12,000. In 1975 Inco, the world's largest nickel producer, had 37,000 employees; in 1986 it employed 13,000.

The problems faced by commodity industries in Canada are similar to those faced by Third World commodity producers:

- low prices
- increased competition (Brazil has huge forests and low wages.)
- synthetics (Plastics have replaced much of the steel used in cars.)
- reduced markets (First World unemployment has meant that fewer people are buying cars or building new houses. People in the Third World can't afford our products.)

(Information Source: Canada and the World, September 1986)

CLOSE-UP on COFFEE

Coffee is the largest single commodity traded internationally, apart from oil. It accounts for more than a quarter of the export earnings of eleven Latin American and African nations. Coffee is a classic case of the boom-or-bust problem faced by producing nations.

The Boom-or-Bust Cycle:

1954: Brazilian coffee trees are damaged by frost. Prices rocket to $1.60 a pound. Farmers rush to take advantage of this all-time high by planting new trees.

1960: The new trees are producing. Production is high; there is too much coffee on the market.

1962: Price of coffee drops to $.35 per pound.

Meanwhile, the price of manufactured goods has climbed consistantly.

(Information Sources: Bridgehead Annual Report 86/87, Dinham & Hines, Agribusiness in Africa; J. Bennett, The Hunger Machine)

The solution: An International Coffee Agreement. In 1962, the first of these agreements was signed. It ensured that prices were kept relatively stable by restricting the amount of coffee sold on the world market. Each producing country was allocated a quota which it was permitted to export. When coffee prices fell below a certain level, quotas were reduced to limit supplies and push up prices. If prices went up, quotas were raised to increase supplies and therefore stabilize prices.

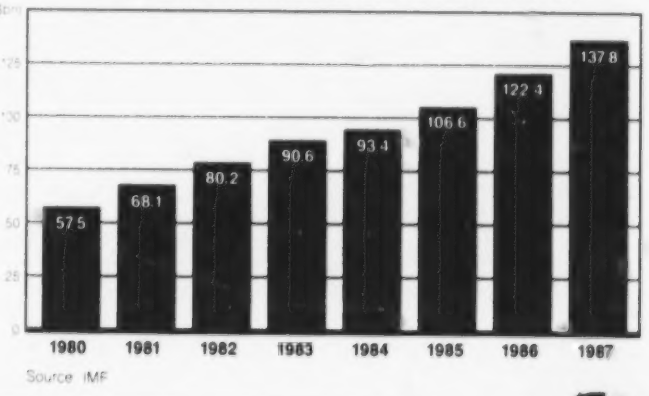
This agreement fell through and has been replaced by another, but is weakened because of competition between Latin American and African growers. The general trend of coffee, despite the occasional "booms", is a slow decline in buying power. In 1986, a coffee-producing country had to sell 66 pounds of coffee to buy one pesticide sprayer; in 1988, a year and a half later, it had to sell 100 pounds to buy the same sprayer.

DEBT

Africa's debt, at the end of 1987, was estimated at almost 140 billion dollars, the equivalent of 69 per cent of the continent's Gross Domestic Product (the total of everything that Africa produced in the course of the year), and 355 per cent of its export earnings. The problem is not just the size of that amount, but the fact that it's going up all the time. In 1987 the debt increased by 11 per cent. The cost of servicing the debt (paying the interest) rose to 54 per cent of Africa's export earnings. Meanwhile, commodity prices continue to fall.

???????
Who's to blame?
What effect is this having on African development?
What can be done?
???????

Sub-Saharan Africa's Total External Debt



Source: IMF

Who's to Blame?

Many of us don't have a great deal of sympathy with people who run up debts they can't pay. Why did African countries get into their present situation? Why didn't they keep the budgets within their incomes?

The Borrowers:

"When we were preparing our First Five Year Development Plan, the price of sisal was £148 per tonne. We felt that this price was not likely to continue so we planned on the basis that it might average £95 per tonne. It dropped to less than £70."
(Julius Nyerere, Tanzania)

When we looked at the problem of commodity-dependence in Africa, we saw that commodities often tend to follow "boom-or-bust" cycles, and also that the general trend in commodity prices has been downhill. This was not something which the newly independent nations could necessarily foresee. When they were on a "bust", they borrowed in expectation of a boom, and often that boom didn't come.

African leaders were also optimistic about their development, confident that if they borrowed to build large projects (and they were encouraged in this by First World banks and by the World Bank, which has generally favoured large-scale, technological development), they would earn enough money to pay back their debts.

AFRICA'S DEBT BURDEN

	TOTAL $ Millions	P/CAP. $		TOTAL $ Millions	P/CAP. $
Nigeria	20,884	230	Guinea	1,627	286
Sudan	11,000	545	Uganda	1,488	110
Ivory Coast	7,107	799	Mali	1,392	196
Zaire	5,497	179	Malawi	1,073	165
Zambia	4,361	727	Niger	1,053	179
Kenya	4,169	230	Benin	923	250
Tanzania	3,356	170	Burkina Faso	697	107
Cameroon	3,320	357	Burundi	581	135
Zimbabwe	2,967	396	Botswana	530	589
Senegal	2,540	423	Rwanda	436	79
Malagasy	2,339	254	Gambia	291	415
Congo	1,092	1,230	Swaziland	260	372
Ethiopia	2,036	62	Lesotho	244	53
Mauritania	1,872	1,170	Chad	243	53
Ghana	1,708	140	G. Bissau	206	258
Somalia	1,644	365			

(Information Source: 1985 UNCTAD report on the Least Developed Countries)

Compare: the average GNP per capita in 1984 for Sub-Saharan Africa was $477. *(Sivard, World Military and Social Expenditures, 1987-88)*

The Lenders:

In the 1970s, the Western Banks suddenly found themselves with a lot of money on their hands. Why? Mainly because the price of oil had shot up, and the newly-rich OPEC countries put their money into the banks. While it might appear to us that the banks should be extremely pleased at all this new business, the banks actually found themselves in a sticky situation. In order to pay out interest on this money, they had to find somewhere to invest it—someone who would pay ***them*** interest. They didn't have to look far. Developing nations, including the newly-independent nations of Africa, were glad to accept loans to help with their development. Throughout the 1970s, all the big banks rapidly increased the proportion of profits made abroad. Looking back, many financial analysists now consider that the banks were too eager to invest. They did not sufficiently check on the credit-worthiness of some countries; they did not consider the effects of debt.

Unforeseen Circumstances:

As well as the drop in commodity prices, those African countries which were not oil-producing were faced with a sudden, sharp increase in the price of oil—oil needed to drive their new tractors and factories. Then, in 1975, interest rates increased, rising from 6 to 17 per cent in five years.

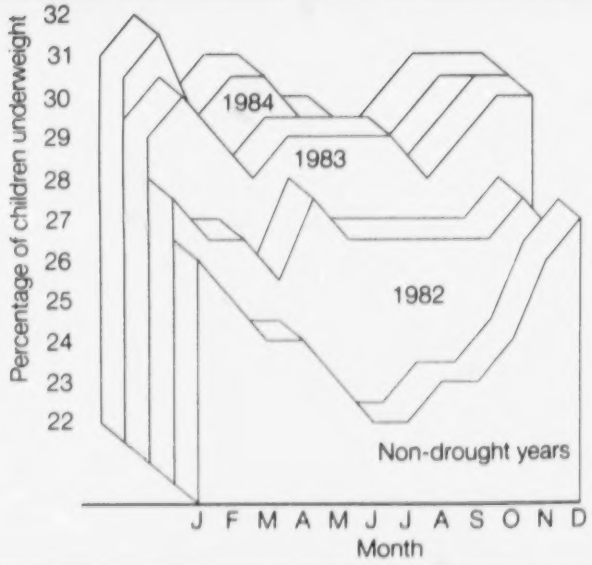
Who Pays for the Debt?

The people who ***profited*** from the loans were not, generally, the poor of Africa. Often loans were spent on grandiose schemes which enhanced the political prestige of the elites, but did little to help the poor. The people who are ***paying*** for these decisions, however, are the poor. Twenty-eight of the forty-four countries in sub-Saharan Africa have agreements with the International Monetary Fund (see p.10). In order for the IMF to agree to help tide them over with additional loans, they must submit to plans for the "restructuring" of their economies. What does restructuring mean?

Generally, it includes the cutting back of government spending, including the removal of government subsidies of basic foods. People who have already faced a deterioration of their not-very-adequate purchasing ability suddenly also face an enormous jump (sometimes over 100%) in the price of their basic food—maize or wheat. The result has been anti-IMF riots in several African cities. Government expenditure also includes education and health, and the gains made in these fields are beginning to show some signs of reversal. In the repayment of debt, the people who suffer most are the most vulnerable—the poor.

"Must we starve our children to pay our debts?" (Julius Nyerere, Tanzania)

Prevalence of underweight children, Botswana, 1979-1984



UNICEF, The State of the World's Children, 1987

What does this graph show about nutritional trends in Botswana? How might this relate to debt?

REPAYING THE DEBT: The Costs

In 1984, 56 per cent of Ghana's foreign exchange earnings went towards servicing external debt, while another third financed oil imports. Cutbacks in essential imports necessitated by this outlay have hurt social sectors such as health, education and water supply. Health institutions experienced chronic shortages of essential drugs and medical equipment; educational supplies and teaching materials were inadequate; and 40 per cent of the country's water supply systems, mostly in rural areas (where 62% of the population lives) have broken down because of shortages of spare parts and fuel.

In Zimbabwe budgetary allocations for all social ministries were reduced by 19.5 per cent in 1984/85. External debt and domestic budgetary constraints have forced Niger to drastically scale down development plans and reduce national investment from an average of $60 million a year prior to 1980 to $2 million in recent years.

In Mozambique, the drugs and equipment needed to maintain and extend the primary health care infrastructure cannot be imported because of the shortage of foreign exchange. In Zaire, as a result of budget cuts, 7,000 teachers were taken off the Government pay-roll in 1984. In Ethiopia, even in the primary schools of Addis Ababa, a textbook is shared by at least four students. In rural schools the teacher may be the only one who has a copy of the textbook; pencils, paper, chalk and similar essential educational supplies are equally scarce. In the state of Bendel in southern Nigeria, after the re-introduction of school fees, primary school enrolment dropped from 90 per cent to 60 per cent during an 18-month period ending in 1984.

(UNICEF, Within Human Reach: A future for Africa's Children", 1985)

The problem is happening, not just in Africa, but all over the Third World.

"We're always asking ourselves, we housewives, what did we do that we have to pay this foreign debt? Have our children eaten too well or gone to the best schools? Worn the best clothes? Or have our salaries been too high? Have we better houses? We all shout in unison, No! So who has benefitted? Why are we the ones who have to pay that debt?"
Dominga Valasquez, Federation of Shantytown Housewives, Bolivia

(quoted in New Internationalist, August 1987)

Africa's Debt: What Can be Done About It?

As might be expected, the donor and the debtor countries have differing ideas about what is to be done.

Re-Structuring of Debt

Donor institutions generally favour the loaning of additional money in order to re-schedule the debt payments in a way which enables the country to realistically keep up its interest payments. In 1986, the **Structural Adjustment Facility** was established within the **IMF**. With an initial $2.7 billion dollars, the fund was for loans to the most debt-burdened countries in Africa, ***providing*** they were willing to follow IMF-prescribed changes in their economies.

Debt Forgiveness

Many African leaders, together with a growing number of independent economists, have concluded that if Africa is ever to get back onto her feet, the debts must be written off. They point out that as the debt burden becomes heavier, the debtor's incentive to improve the economy grows weaker because benefits will go abroad. Canada, Germany, France, the Netherlands, and the Nordic countries have all forgiven some of their bilateral (government to government) loans.

Other ideas:

The Organization for African Unity (OAU) met in November 1987 to discuss Africa's financial crisis. Here are some of their recommendations:

- a ten-year moratorium on all debt service;
- multi-year debt rescheduling of at least five years, with repayments over 50 years, ten years' grace and zero interest;
- the conversion of all bilateral loans into grants;
- consideration by the IMF of the possibility of rescheduling its credits to African countries and the lengthening of repayment periods;
- compensatory finance for increases in interest.

And more . . .

- **Debt ceilings** have been instituted by several Third World countries. Peru and Zambia, for instance, have said that they will not pay more than 10% of their export earnings in interest.

- **Debt-for-development swaps** are an innovative compromise. Here, the bank which is owed money by a developing country will agree to let that country pay off the debt in local currency, by building a factory or other project which the bank would then own, and which would provide employment and development for the country.

What is Canada Doing?

Canada has consistently led in the international effort to help Third World countries, particularly the Least Developed Countries, overcome the burden of debt.

★ **1977:** Canada forgave all its earlier Official Development Assistance (ODA) loans to the least-developed countries, and all new bilateral development assistance has been in grant form, rather than loans.

★ **1986:** Canada announced a 5-year moratorium on the repayment of ODA loans previously made to the countries of sub-Saharan Africa.

★ **1987:** Canada forgave the loans of several African countries.

Canada also supports multi-lateral funds, such as the IMF Structural Adjustment Facility, with donations.

(Information Sources: CIDA, Sharing Our Future; United Nations Association - Vancouver Branch, The African Debt Crisis; Africa Recovery, December 1987 and March 1988, Bennett, The Hunger Machine)

Toronto summit gives green light for debt relief

By Tony Hodges

After months of agonizing discussion about Africa's crushing debt burden, the major Western creditor countries have finally agreed to take action to ease the plight of the world's most indebted, poorest nations, most of which are in Africa.

At their summit conference in Toronto on 19-21 June, the leaders of the seven leading Western industrial states, the Group of Seven, agreed in principle to a menu of options to alleviate the debt servicing burden.

The options include partial debt forgiveness, reductions in interest rates and the extension of repayment periods. However, there are still many unanswered questions about the extent of the relief to be offered....

(Africa Recovery, August/88)

The African Economic Crisis: the big picture

The combined factors of decreasing prices for exports, increasing prices for imports, and the burden of debt repayments has led to a situation where Africa, instead of receiving money from the North, is paying out money to the North. The Secretary-General of the UN reported in late 1987 that debt servicing costs and the repatriation of profits to industrialized countries are outstripping the inflow of money through aid and export earnings. The world's poorest continent is subsidizing the rich.

(Information Source: PAC News, July 1988)

So what is the First World doing about Africa's economic crisis?

Two institutions have been getting a lot of press lately: the World Bank and the IMF (International Monetary Fund). These are both technically part of the United Nations "family", but unlike most other UN agencies, voting power in the World Bank and in the IMF is proportionate to contributions. Thus the rich members are in control. One of the reasons they are getting more attention is because people have very different opinions about them.

The World Bank

Ten billion dollars pass through the World Bank each year, generally for specific projects which the Bank identifies and appraises. More than half of its lending goes into agricultural and rural development, power (mostly large hydroelectric projects), and transportation (mostly roads).

In 1986 the World Bank had 150 members, with voting power weighed in proportion to contributions. Since the US pays the largest amount of funds, it gets 19% of the vote. The President of the Bank, always an American, is Barber Conable.

Recently, because of the debt crisis, the Bank has taken a new direction of making loans which are meant to tide countries over while they restructure their economies—a similar function to the IMF, except that the loans tend to be longer term.

Canada is the Bank's ninth-largest contributor, providing about $285 million to the Bank in 1986-87.

(Information Sources: New Internationalist, Feb. 1987; CIDA, Sharing Our Future)

THE WORLD BANK: Two Perspectives

THE OPPOSITION

"Recently, the World Bank has come under fire from several quarters—academics, grassroots US environmental pressure groups and the US Congress—for funding projects which appear to be destroying both the local environment and local cultures. A worldwide day of demonstration and marches in protest against the World Bank and other development banks was organised in late September 1986. Concern over the Bank's policies is not only voiced in Northern countries, and it is not always peacefully expressed; in June 1986 a crowd of demonstrators surrounded and burned to the ground a World Bank-financed factory being built on Thailand's scenic Phuket Island. The $45 million factory, a refinery for the production of the metal tantalum, which is used in items ranging from light-bulbs to nuclear reactor components, was designed to aid the economic development of the area. The demonstrators feared that the factory would release hydrofluoric acid or radioactive pollution, or both, into the sea, thereby destroying the tourist trade and the fisheries. They saw not development, but disaster."

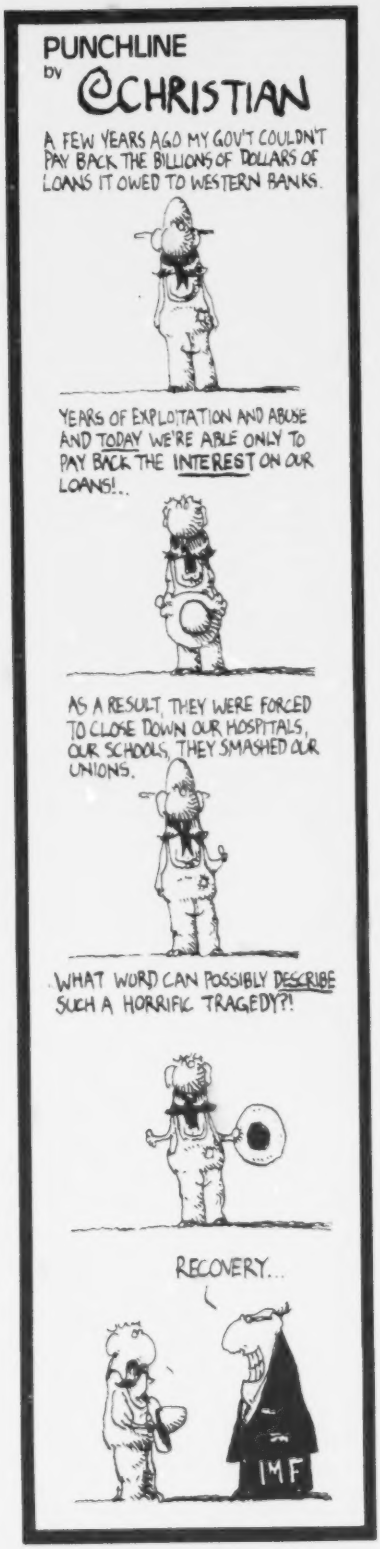
*(Timberlake, **Only One Earth**. London: BBC Books/Earthscan, 1987, p. 24)*

THE SUPPORT

Senior World Bank officials, while praising the far-reaching economic policy reforms being undertaken by many African governments, are stressing that the pace of these reforms needs to be accelerated if a more severe crisis is to be averted. . . .

"I take my hat off to those leaders who have the courage and the stamina to initiate changes which entail sacrifices and are bound to alienate important sectors of their populations," says Mr. Edward Jaycox, the Bank's Vice President for Eastern and Southern Africa and head of a steering committee studying the Bank's role and organization. "But, if anything, when judged against the need, the reform process is going too slowly in most countries. The people have to stop consuming things their countries just cannot afford. And they had better do it right away, because they are hemorrhaging their national patrimony."

*("Pace of economic reform must pick up: Bank," **Africa Recovery**, Feb-April 1987)*


PUNCHLINE
by ©CHRISTIAN
A FEW YEARS AGO MY GOV'T COULDN'T PAY BACK THE BILLIONS OF DOLLARS OF LOANS IT OWED TO WESTERN BANKS.
YEARS OF EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE AND TODAY WE'RE ABLE ONLY TO PAY BACK THE INTEREST ON OUR LOANS!..
AS A RESULT, THEY WERE FORCED TO CLOSE DOWN OUR HOSPITALS, OUR SCHOOLS, THEY SMASHED OUR UNIONS.
WHAT WORD CAN POSSIBLY DESCRIBE SUCH A HORRIFIC TRAGEDY?!
RECOVERY...
IMF

(New Internationalist, July 1986)

The International Monetary Fund (IMF)

The IMF was created in 1944 as a fund to which members could contribute, and from which they could then borrow—a kind of cooperative bank. Interest rates on the loans were 1/3 to 1/2 of the going commercial rate and were for one to five years. All countries except the Soviet bloc eventually joined the fund.

The main reason for which IMF loans are given are "temporary balance of payment problems". In other words, when a country is in debt, it can borrow foreign exchange from the IMF and repay it when it has emerged from the "temporary difficulty".

By the mid-1970s, 75% of IMF loans were to the Third World. By the early 1980s, the IMF realized that the balance of payment problems with which it was dealing were not temporary. What is more, private banks—following the failure of Mexico and Brazil to repay their loans—were hesitant to lend to Third World countries. The IMF agreed to become the middleman between the developing countries and the bankers. In order to get an IMF loan, the developing country must agree to an IMF-designed restructuring of their economy, involving reduction of government expenditure on social services and subsidies, a devaluing of currency, and an emphasis on the export products which will produce the foreign exchange needed to repay the loan. In order to get the financing of private banks, countries find that they also must get a "clean bill of health" from the IMF.

Canada is the seventh-largest shareholder in the IMF.

(Information Sources: United Nations Association, Vancouver Branch, The African Debt Crisis; New Internationalist, Feb. 1987; CIDA, Sharing Our Future)

Like the World Bank, the IMF has its share of critics:

IMF, dirty IMF
takes away everything it can get
always making certain that there's
one thing left
keep them on the run with insupportable debt

They see the loaded eyes of the
children too
trying to make the best of it
the way kids do
one day you're going to rise
from your habitual feast
and find yourself staring down
the throat of the beast
they call the revolution

*From **"Call Iit Democracy"** c 1985 Golden Mountain Music Corp. Words and Music by Bruce Cockburn. Taken from the album "World of Wonders". Used by permission.*

The IMF program has been with us for close to 12 years now and we began to see nothing but a contraction of the economy, contracting, contracting, contracting. In the end, we were living to pay the IMF, nothing else!"

*(President Kaunda, of Zambia, which broke with the IMF, quoted in **Africa Report,** Nov.-Dec. 1987)*

"I believe that these institutions, originally meant as institutions of cooperation among the developed countries, are now being used as instruments of control over the developing countries. They have become instruments for a new kind of empire."

(Julius Nyerere, Tanzania)

But the managing director of the IMF, disagrees with the criticisms:
"The decisions on where spending cuts are to be made, and which sectors of the population will be most affected, are taken by governments, not by the IMF. We work with governments' programmes which correct the unsustainable imbalances in the economy."
*(Michael Camdessus, Managing director of the IMF, in **Africa Recovery**, December 1987)*

AID

Still at it

Punk diplomat Bob Geldof came to UN headquarters during the Special Session to chide donor governments participating in the Special Session on Africa for "wasting the one ideal opportunity to fundamentally alter the economic and political global structure that makes Africa a continent going down on its knees."

"I don't think much will come out of this Special Session, much to its eternal shame." He said the Session should have been at least two weeks long, allowing enough time to come up with "pragmatic and specific results on the key issues of agricultural development, debt, arms and international trade."

Afterwards, at an NGO assembly, Geldof urged NGO delegates to "activate the world and show what's really happening in developing countries—and what must be done if Africa is going to avoid just another disaster like the one it just came through."

"Aid is a political weapon that often benefits donor countries more than it benefits recipients," he said. "But there's no reason why aid has to be a carrot on a stick or blackmail. Everyone assumes this is the way it's got to be, but we can change it."

(Africa Emergency Report, Aug.-Sept./86)

Bob Geldof has mixed feelings about aid. On the one hand, he sees aid as "a political weapon that often benefits donor countries more than it benefits recipients"; on the other hand, he feels that aid could be a useful tool. "We can change it."

Bob Geldof may not know it, but his thinking matches that of many development analysts. Brian Walker, president of the International Institute for Environment and Development has this to say about aid in Africa: "Despite the presence of over 80,000 expatriate aid workers in Africa, we still seem to learn little from our mistakes. We continue to make them decade after decade."

(Harrison, The Greening of Africa)

?????

What kinds of aid are there?
What is good aid like?
What is bad aid like?
Who benefits from aid?

These are some of the questions which need to be considered in looking at aid programs.

AID in a nutshell:

Aid can be divided into 3 main categories:

★ **Bilateral aid:** government-to-government aid

★ **Multilateral aid:** goes through institututions supported by more than one country: (FAO) Food and Agricultural Organization, UNEP (United Nations Environment Program), World Health Organization, to name but a few.

★ **NGO(non-governmental organization) aid:** provided by non-profit, private aid agencies such as OXFAM, the Red Cross, CUSO, often with matching grants from the government (CIDA, Canada's aid-granting agency, matches funds raised by NGOs in order to help them carry out their projects.)

How much aid is there?

Few countries have yet reached the target of 0.7% of GNP, agreed to in the early 70s. In 1988-89, Canada expects to spend $2.7 billion in aid, about 0.5% of the GNP. Canada hopes to reach 0.7% by the year 2000.

What's Good Aid; What's Not-So-Good?

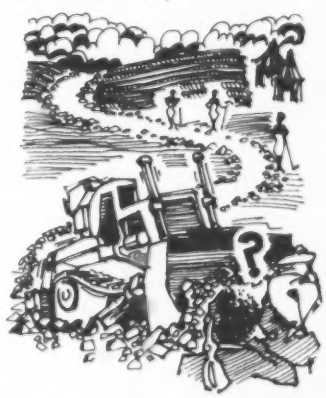
CASE-STUDY 1

THE EUROPEAN DEVELOPMENT FUND PROJECT IN UPPER VOLTA

(now Burkina Faso)

Bulldozers covered 120,000 hectares with a network of low soil bunds (dikes). There was no involvement of villagers whatsoever; peasants remember only the massive earthmovers trundling uninvited across their land as if alien invaders had landed. There was no explanation of the purpose of the bunds, no training of villagers in how to maintain them. The bunds held back water uphill and allowed it to infiltrate slowly, but farmers complained that they dried up the soil for a few metres below the bund. Follow-up studies found that most bunds were not maintained at all, and decayed in two or three years.

*(Source: Paul Harrison, **The Greening of Africa**. London: Paladin, 1987. Copyright: International Institute for Environment and Development)*



CASE-STUDY 2

THE SWEDISH INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY PROGRAM IN KENYA

In 1974, the director of the program, Carl Wenner, arrived from Sweden. He started his program by asking the Kenyan farmers about their problems, needs, and existing methods of soil conservation. Finding a number of effective traditional methods in use, he worked with farmers to improve and perfect them, ending up with a set of measures that farmers could carry out themselves, with their own resources and some expert help. Three main methods of terracing, using planting of trees and grasses and lines of crop trash, were developed. The methods use only hand tools — no imported machinery — can be carried out in the dry season, and so don't conflict with planting and harvesting, and don't involve a loss of cropland. The methods also produce immediate payoffs; because they help trap water, they produce better yields right away — 39 to 47 percent higher. A network of government-paid agricultural extension workers advise the farmers and help plan the layout of the terraces, but farmers themselves do the work and bear the bulk of the expenses.

After one decade, two out of every 5 Kenyan farms had been terraced under the program, and farmers were carrying out thorough conservation measures under their own steam. *(Information from Harrison, The Greening of Africa, Paladin Books, 1987)*

CASE STUDY 3

THE CANADIAN WHEAT-GROWING PROJECT IN TANZANIA

In 1970, the Canadian government committed $7 million to a project to grow most of the wheat needed by Tanzania. By 1983, Canada had committed $44 million to this effort — a sum being matched by a Tanzanian government desperately short of foreign exchange. Using mechanised equipment purchased from Canada and run on expensive imported petrol, 24,000 hectares were ploughed up on the Hanang Plains southwest of Arusha. This provided only about 250 skilled jobs for Tanzanians and recruited only 100 local men as casual labour at less than $1 a day. The Barbaig pastoralists who had used the land were squeezed onto poorer ranges, which their cattle rapidly overgrazed.

The soil is fertile and able to hold water because of a high clay content, but it is very sticky when wet and shrinks and cracks when dry. "Severe erosion threatens to turn the whole wheat-growing area into a dust bowl within a decade", wrote Derek Warren of OXFAM.

The project does help reduce Tanzania's import bill for wheat, which will benefit the better-off city dwellers and the tourist, as maize is a staple for 8 out of 10 Tanzanians.

From AFRICA IN CRISIS by Lloyd Timberlake
(c) 1985, 1988 by Lloyd Timberlake
Published by Earthscan Publications Ltd, London.

CASE-STUDY 4

THE LUTHERAN WORLD RELIEF GARDEN PROJECT IN NIGER

The farmers of Niger's lowlands traditionally practice dry-season gardening, but not very successfully. Their log-lined wells are constantly collapsing, and hungry livestock eat the produce.

Lutheran World Relief (LWR) developed a method of building cement-lined wells for $300, using a mold into which concrete is poured around steel rods. The farmers dig the hole, and provide the sand, gravel, water and labour; while the well-linings are made by teams of local workers, trained by LWR. LWR provides the cement and the steel rods, as well as the team of workers, but the farmer must pay back the cost over a 3-year period. The money which he or she repays will go into building more wells.

LWR also trains some of the farmers in gardening techniques (so that they can train their neighbours) and provides hand tools, improved seeds, fertilizers and pesticides on a pay-back basis.

Instead of building wooden fences, farmers are encouraged to plant living hedges of a fast-growing, thorny plant, which keep out the livestock, and can be pruned to provide firewood. *(Harrison, ibid.)*

AID:

The Big Questions

TECHNOLOGY: What is appropriate technology for African countries?

Considerations:

$$$Cost: oil / machinery and parts / foreign experts who understand the technology

Labour: Should projects be labour-intensive or capital-intensive?

Is the technology **imported or local**? Will it increase the country's debt, or help stimulate the local economy?

How many people will benefit from each dollar spent? (Is it better to spend the money on a single, high-technology hospital, or a larger number of simple village health-clinics? On training a doctor, or training 25 basic health-care workers?)

PARTICIPATION: Who should be involved in the planning of an aid project? Who should do the work? Whose ideas count?

PEOPLE: Who is affected by an aid project? Who is displaced? How will the patterns of work and of culture affect the success of a project? Is the contribution of women acknowledged? (Often, as we will see later, women, who do much of Africa's farming, are ignored in aid projects.)

BENEFITS: Who benefits from the project: the recipient or the donor? Can the poor of the country really benefit from the project, or will the richer people be the only ones who can afford to take advantage of it? Is this a high-risk project? (Who will suffer if it isn't successful?) What will the long-term environmental effects be?

On Technology

AGRIBUSINESS

Troublesome Technology

Tractor U-Turn

THE world's tractor manufacturers are facing a crisis of profitability. At least one International Harvester factory and one Allis-Chalmers tractor-plant are being closed. The world's largest tractor-manufacturer, Massey-Ferguson Ltd., recently reported that European sales fell by 14 per cent, and its North American market remained static. Declining sales in the developed world, and a series of mergers, make it likely that these companies will try to increase sales to developing countries.

But there are good reasons why the Third World should not buy tractors. Their use causes job losses amongst those who are the most vulnerable, the rural poor. Farm labourers lose their jobs as tractors replace them. Over two and a half million jobs have been lost in Latin America alone since the introduction of modern tractors.

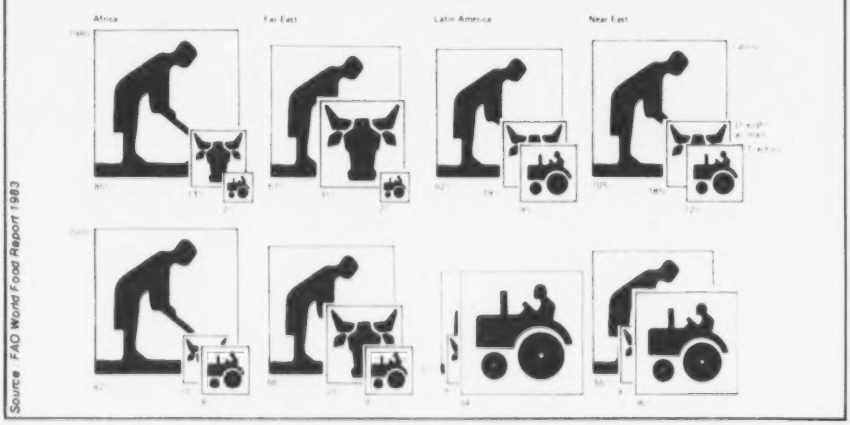
Tractors also cause severe long-term environmental damage by compacting the soil. Compaction prevents water seeping into the soil and prevents adequate drainage. It also reduces plant rooting depth and limits nutrient uptake. Ten per cent of yields were lost because of compaction in the Southern States of the USA during 1971. This represented a loss of more than $1 billion per year. And the figure is increasing: 30 per cent of crops, valued at $3 billion, were lost in 1980.

Tractors are usually introduced into farming at the expense of traditional draught animals such as buffalo or oxen. But they have some disadvantages compared to beasts of burden. Unlike animals, they are expensive to buy and costly to run. They have the additional disadvantage that their owners become dependent on foreign spares and services. Spare parts – or the foreign currencies needed to buy them – are about as plentiful as hen's teeth. To make matters worse, the increasing use of tractors means the loss of fertiliser, previously created by animal droppings. This valuable organic matter has to be replaced by imported artificial fertilisers. In turn, these chemicals are often dangerous pollutants.

Tractors are sold on the promise that they will increase agricultural production. But these increases only take place on large farms. And the poverty-stricken in rural areas can rarely afford to buy the extra food that is grown. Many of them will have lost what little work they had – in the name of 'development.'

Andy Crump

Comparison of labour, draught animals, and tractor power for agriculture in developing countries, 1980 and 2000 (percentage of total)



Source: FAO World Food Report 1983

WHO BENEFITS:

Tied Aid

Canada, like many developed countries, has a policy of "tied aid", which means that a certain amount of the aid money given to developing countries must be spent on goods and services in Canada. Recently, CIDA (the Canadian International Development Agency) announced that it was reducing the "tied" component of its aid from 80% to 66%, and further to 50% for sub-Saharan Africa.

Putting in Our Two Cents:
Canada puts in 2 cents into development assistance out of each dollar of federal spending, compared to 47 cents for social programs, 11 cents for economic and regional development, and 8 cents for defence.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Enlightened Self-Interest:

The Brandt Report, headed by West German Chancellor Willie Brandt, pointed out to the developed world that it was in their interests to maintain a reasonable degree of prosperity among their Third World neighbours. If the Third World nations are too poor to buy First World products, then manufacturing and trade will stagnate the world over.

"Interdependence is no longer a vague notion, but a central fact of daily life. This has given development cooperation added and urgent importance. ... It is an essential investment in our own future prosperity, which will depend upon the economic health of our trading partners."

(The Hon. Joe Clark, Secretary of State for External Affairs, Canada)

You are the Kenya's UN representative. Write the speech that you will deliver to the UN, explaining your economic difficulties to the developed countries (commodities--particularly coffee, which is your major export, trade inequities, debt), pointing out how **your** difficulty will eventually effect **them**.

2. Getting Into Debt:

(with a little help from your friends)

Mustapha and the Banker

Scene 1:

(In front of Mustapha's primitive shoe-shop, where people are making shoes and sandals by hand)

"So primitive!"
"?" Mustapha looks nonplussed.
"All this! These people slaving away, earning next to nothing, making shoes one at a time."
"I know. But what do you expect us to do about it?"
"Industrialize! Create your own manufacturing industries so that you can compete on the world market. That's the only way poor countries like yours can really develop."
"And where do you expect us to get the money from?"
"We'll lend it to you. Then you'll be able to build roads, dams, power projects, factories . . ."
"Oh yes?"
"Sure. There will be certain conditions, of course. Like you will have to use our technology and hire our experts. That kind of thing."
"Mmm. And what about the interest rates?"
"Low. Since the oil crisis we've got more 'petro-dollars' floating around the Western banking system than we know what to do with."
"I appreciate your problem . . ."
"No doubt about it. The 1970s are going to be the decade for developing Third World economies!"

Scene 2:

Ten years later, Mustapha and the Western Expert meet again, outside a new, but already shut-down, shoe factory.

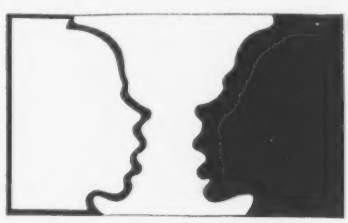
With a partner, continue their conversation, and prepare to act out your skit.

(Adapted from New Internationalist Calendar, 1988)

3. COMMODITIES--Zambia meets B.C.:

The Minister for Economic Development of Zambia is visiting his counterpart in B.C. Together, they discuss the problems of a commodity-based economy, and struggle to come up with a plan for economies which will be less vulnerable to market fluctuations, and to dwindling natural resources.

Either singly or in pairs, consider what topics would be discussed, and write up, in point form, a "Plan for Economic Development' which the two of them might both consider useful for their respective countries.



4. Debt and recovery: Whose fault? Who pays?

In September, 1988, a group of international activists, called the Permanent People's Tribunal, opened a 4-day trial of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. Here is what some of the "prosecutors" in this mock trial said:

Susan George, U.S. Author (How the Other Half Dies)

"The Third World War has already started. This war is a financial low-intensity conflict. It's a policing action, a way of projecting power into the Third World."

George Wald (co-winner of the 1967 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine)

"The debt has become a major instrument of domination of the Third World by First World nations." *(From The Times-Colonist, Sept. 27/88)*

You have been invited to participate in the trial referred to above.

Prepare a 1-page position paper from one of the following perspectives:

- Bank official (lent money in the 70s)
- IMF official
- World Bank Official
- Government Official from a debt-ridden African country
- Peasant mother from the same country
- UNICEF Official
- Canadian environmental activist

Your class may want to stage a mock trial, using some of the position papers.

(Read pages 5 to 10 first.)

5. Aid Committee Game:

In groups, work on the following problem:

You are an aid committee for a Canadian Aid Organization. You have limited funds (50 units of money), and you must choose a selection of projects which fit into your budget. Select from the following project list, and be prepared to discuss with the rest of the class why your group valued some projects over others.

PROJECT LIST

1. Women's Cooperative in Nigeria

A group of women living in several small villages in Northern Nigeria want to start a cooperative for weaving cloth and making clothes, which will then be marketed in the large city of Kano, to raise money for the women and families, who are presently suffering a high level of malnutrition. The cost to equip three village workshops and provide a coordinator: 15 units.

2. Secondary Education in Sudan

The construction of four secondary technical schools each with a capacity for 324 students in the Sudan. Cost: 20 units.

3. Primary education in Swaziland

The equipping and staffing of a training college for primary teachers in Swaziland. Cost: 15 units

4. Health Care in Burkina Faso

The construction and staffing of a centre to train basic village health care workers in Burkina Faso, to undertake immunization, ORT (simple way of treating children suffering from dehydration), and other simple medical techniques. Cost: 20 units.

5. Hospital Care in Uganda

Construction and equipping of a modern hospital in Kampala, the capital of Uganda. Cost: 30 units.

6. Cooperative in Kenya

Providing a staff-person and initial cash for a farmers' cooperative in rural Kenya. The purpose of the cooperative would be to give small loans for seeds and equipment, to be paid back by farmers at reasonable rates of interest. Cost: 5 units

7. Food in Ethiopia

Provision of relief food in famine-struck areas of Ethiopia. Cost: 15 units.

8. Electrification of Burundi

Undertake a feasibility study for the government of Burundi to ascertain whether a proposed dam project, which would provide electrification for new industries in Burundi, would be cost-effective. Cost: 10 units.

(Read pages 11 to 13 first.)

Part 4: TRADE, AID & DEBT
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

Why is Africa so poor?

What is being done to change the situation?

OVERVIEW:

Part 4 presents the current economic situation of Africa, which is characterized by a worsening standard of living, deterioration of social services, and a crippling debt burden. Why has this happened to Africa? Inequities of trade, the fall of commodity prices, and the factors leading to the current debt situation are discussed.

Efforts to help—lending by the World Bank and IMF, and development aid—are viewed from a variety of viewpoints.

Key Concepts:

- The developing countries are exporters of commodities. Commodity prices have deteriorated steadily in past several years, while the price of manufactured goods, imported from the North, has steadily risen. The result has been a large decline in the terms of trade of African countries.
- Attempts to add value to commodities by processing before exporting have been discouraged by developed countries, through tariffs and quotas.
- African countries like Zambia (which relies on copper for 90% of its exports earnings) are not alone; parts of Canada are also commodity-dependent.
- Africa's debt is due to a number of factors: difficulty of budgetting with uncertain, fluctuating prices; overoptimism about development; desire of western bankers to invest petrodollars; skyrocketting oil prices; increased interest rates.
- The burden of debt repayments falls most heavily on Africa's poor, and is seen in the decrease of services in health, education and clean water provision.
- Solutions to the debt problem include restructuring, debt forgiveness, debt ceilings, and debt-for-development swaps. Canada has played a leading role in finding solutions to Africa's debt problem.
- Attempts to overcome Africa's poverty include multilateral lending institutions (The World Bank, the IMF) and overseas development aid. The World Bank and the IMF have both drawn criticism for some of their policies.
- Some aid projects are more effective than others. Criteria involving appropriate technology, participation, and who receives the benefit are useful in evaluating what projects are effective.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

On Aid:

Partners in Development
(NFB 106C 0182 542 — 24 min.)

This film, which was jointly produced by CIDA and the NFB, is a lively and well-produced look at the different types of projects undertaken by CIDA, particularly projects which involve Canadians working abroad. It shows a number of Canadians—a B.C. woodwork teacher, a Toronto supply supervisor, and others—preparing to leave Canada, and follows them to the overseas projects in which they're involved.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Before viewing, tell the students that the film they're watching deals with a number of different types of projects supported by the Canadian International Development Agency, projects in Peru, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso (referred to in the film as "Upper Volta"), and Senegal. After the film, you will be discussing these different projects, so you'd like them to make a brief note of each project as it comes up (where and what it is).

(Continued)

Post-viewing discussion: Elicit from the students a brief description of each of the projects:
Peru: construction training/ health (flying babies to hospital)/ community daycare centres in Lima
Bangladesh: electrification project (related to young widows who are learning trades utilizing the electricity)/ potash fertilizer provision/ water control (small-scale dams)/ railway bridge repair and technical training relating to railways
Burkina Faso (formerly Upper Volta): eradication of river blindness by insecticide spraying
Senegal: fisheries cooperatives and refrigeration units

How would the students rate these projects in terms of:
★ efficiency in providing basic services—food, water, health, education—in a simple, cheap way? (One project to look at here would be the helicopter health project in Peru. Are there other, less expensive ways to ensure the health of babies which would be more preventative in nature?)
★ effectiveness in reaching the very poor? One major problem to look at here is who can afford the technology. (Can the poorer farmers in Bangladesh afford the fertilizer? How could you ensure that everyone could buy the fertilizer without actually giving it away? What about motors for the boats in Senegal; would these be given away? bought? how?) The role of credit is very important in this discussion; without credit, aid often helps the rich get richer, and the poor less able to compete.

The electrification project in Bangladesh raises the discussion of who usually benefits in this type of project (who uses the electricity), and who pays (who is displaced by dam projects). What questions would we need to ask CIDA to decide whether this project is of real benefit to the poor?

★ being appropriate in terms of using simple technology which the local people can use, local materials, so that foreign dependency is not created? (This is rather a sore point with CIDA, whose aid is presently 66% tied — 66% of goods and services must be Canadian, and this can at times lead to innappropriate technology and dependence on expensive, Canadian-made parts. What would you need to know about the small-scale dams, for instance, or the outboard motors, to determine whether these projects would be successful?)

★ being environmentally sustainable? What projects might we want to examine from an environmental viewpoint? (fertilizer, insecticide spraying)

This film features Canadians who are going overseas to help in development. What are some of the advantages and disadvantages in sending Canadians to help with Third World development? What would some alternatives be? (The bridge-repair project in Bangladesh utilized a Bangladesh citizen as part of the project. This might be pointed out to the students as one way of overcoming the difficulties inherent in dealing with different cultures and languages.)

These projects were funded in different ways. Most of them were bilaterial projects (government to government aid). The river-blindness eradication project, however, was multilateral aid, funded through the World Health Organization, to which Canada contributes. The Peruvian health project (flying out the sick babies) was a case of aid being directed through a Canadian NGO (non-governmental organization). In this case, the Canadian organization would raise an amount of money, and submit their project idea to CIDA. If CIDA approved the project, they would match the money with an equivalent amount, or even double or triple the amount of money.
★ What are the advantages/disadvantages of bilateral, multilateral, and NGO funding?
★ What are some of the NGOs which the students know about? How can you tell what NGOs are good ones to contribute to?

If this film had been made in 1972, rather than 1982, it would probably have emphasized food aid, and large-scale projects, such as mechanized farming projects and the building of large hydro-electric projects. The types of projects described here are quite different. What lessons about development has CIDA learned in the intervening decade?

Other Resources:

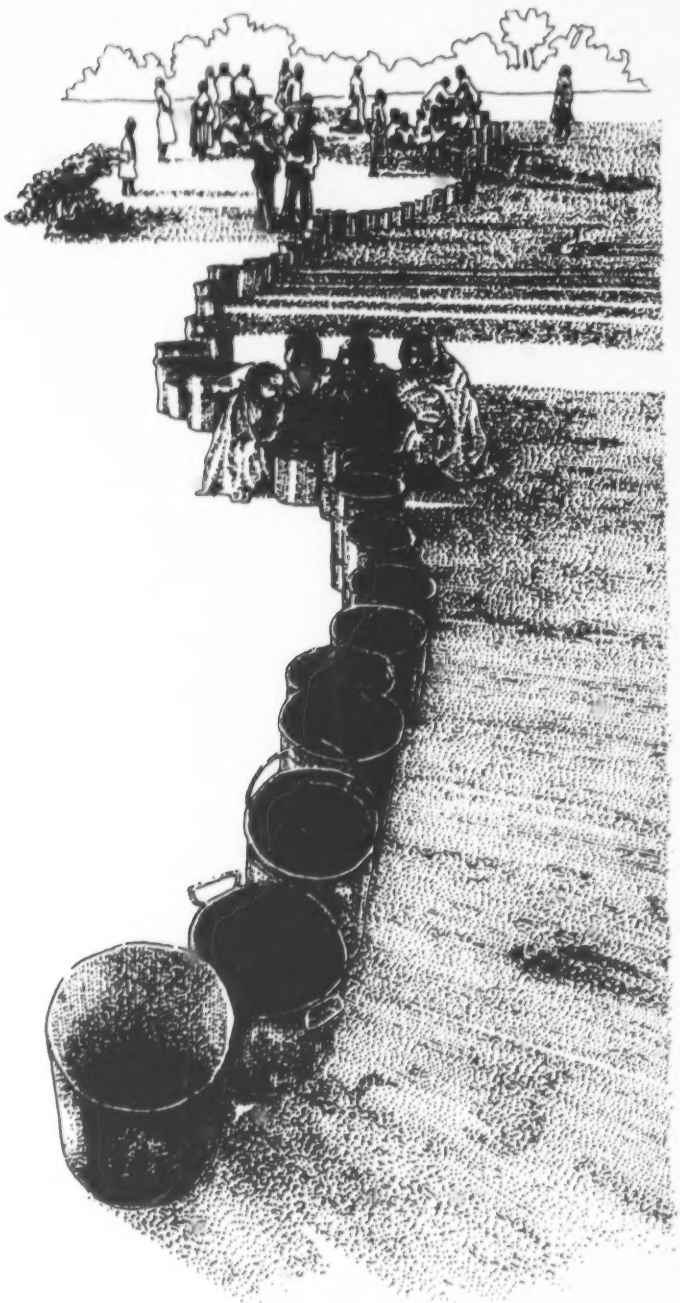
On Trade:

The Trading Game is an excellent simulation game which can be played in one to one and a half hours. Check with your nearest Learner Centre (Part 10, pages 12 to 13), or send 50p plus postage (about $2.00 total) to CAFOD, 2 Romero Close, Stockwell Road, London SW9 9TY.

CANADA'S AID:

Bilateral:	48%
Multilateral	36%
NGOs	10%
Industrial Cooperation	2%
Administration	4%

(CIDA, Sharing Our Future, 1987)



Part 5

FOOD, WATER & HEALTH

contents

Part 5: Food, Water & Health

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Food 1

Problems of Agriculture in Africa:
- Urban Bias 2-3
- Western Bias 3
- Export Crops 4-5
- Multinational Companies 5-6
- Male Bias 6-7

American, African Farmers: Common Maladies 8

Turning the Situation Around—What Works / What Doesn't:
- Food Aid: Blessing or Curse? 9
- A Green Revolution for Africa 10
- Rural Self-help 11-12
- The Small Farmer 12

Water:
- Water 12
- Degree of Access to Clean Water in Africa 13
- What Happens When People Don't Have Clean Water? 13
- Women's Work 13
- What Can We Do About It? 14
- Case Study from Malawi 14

Health:
- Health 15
- Preventive vs. Curative Health Care 15
- Primary Health Care 16
- Case Study in Success: Senegal 16
- Exporting Ill Health 17-18

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 18-20

TEACHER NOTES 21

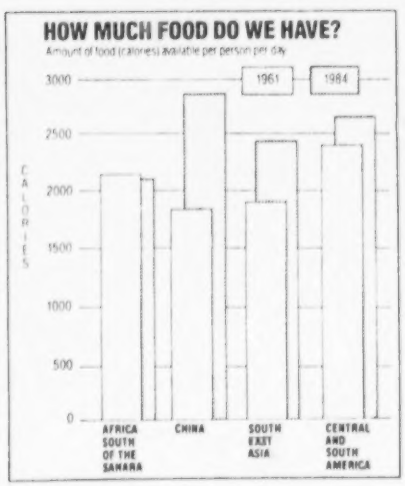
AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 22-24

FOOD

"The number of people who die as a direct result of malnutrition is equivalent to dropping a Hiroshima bomb every three days."
(Jon Bennett, The Hunger Machine)

"The world has ample food. The growth of global food production has been faster than the unprecedented population growth of the past forty years. In the middle of 1987, the world population figure grew to 5 billion. . . . Yet many poor countries and hundreds of millions of poor people do not share in this abundance."

World Bank, 1986



Williams, Children & World Development

"Food is plentiful, but the hungry and malnourished often have little or no access to it. They neither have the purchasing power to acquire it, nor the inputs necessary to produce it themselves."

UN Secretary General Javier Perez de Cuellar, 1987

'Fourth of all Africa can't afford to eat'

The Associated Press

WEST BERLIN — One African in four cannot afford to eat enough for an active working life, and the number of hungry is rising, the World Bank reported Sunday.

Edward V.K. Jaycox, the bank's vice-president for Africa, released a report saying 103.7 million Africans are among the "food insecure."

Ethiopia, buffetted by wars and drought, has the largest number: 14.7 million, almost half its population. It is followed by Nigeria with 13.7 million and Zaire with 12 million. Chad, Somalia, Zambia and Mozambique have higher percentages, but their population is smaller....

"In the 1980's both the proportion and the total number of Africans with deficient diets have climbed—and will continue to rise unless special action is taken," the report said.

"Barely a quarter of Africans lived in countries where food consumption was increasing in the 1980s—down considerably from about two-thirds in the 1970s."

Production of food grains has been declining for two decades, Jaycox told a news conference.

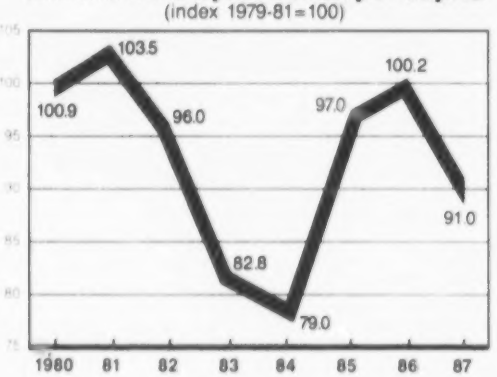
In some places food may be scarce, but more often people just do not have the money to buy it, he said.

The report calls for actions so that within five years, half to two-thirds of the countries below the Sahara will have carried out programs to cover a majority of the region's most needy.

Times-Colonist, September 26, 1988.

Reprinted with permission of The Associated Press.

Africa's cereal production per capita
(index 1979-81=100)

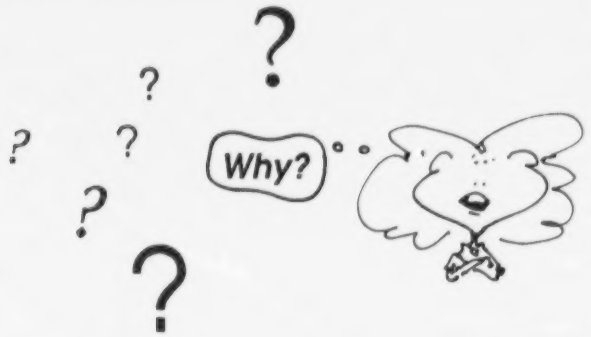


Source: FAO

So what are all these clippings and graphs supposed to tell me?

You might summarize it like this:

- There's enough food to go around, but it doesn't seem to be divided up equally.
- Of all the developing regions, Africa is faring the worst. What is more, the trend is towards less, rather than more, food security for Africa.



As always, it's easiest to blame the weather. But, although the African drought has certainly made the situation worse, it doesn't explain the problem. We can best explore the roots of hunger in Africa by looking at a whole series of biases: urban bias, western bias (both of which have led to an emphasis on export crops), and male bias. Together, these skewed forms of development have set Africa on a road to hunger.

1. urban bias

Most of Africa's governing bodies are composed of city folk. They are the ones who go to school, enter professions, get elected. Generally, Africa's ruling class has little experience with the problems of the rural poor, and is more concerned with keeping the urban populations fed and content than with encouraging farmers to grow more food.

African experts generally agree that most African countries are not paying their farmers enough to encourage them to produce more food. Urban incomes in industry and services are four to eight times higher than incomes in agriculture. In Tanzanian cities, only one person in five (20%) lives in absolute poverty; in the countryside, two out of three (67%) do. In Zambia, 24 per cent of town dwellers are absolutely poor, against 52 per cent of rural families. Often, food prices for the farmers are kept low by government marketing boards, which buy up produce at a low price and export at a higher price.In Mali, in 1981, it cost farmers ten cents to produce a kilo of rice. The official price paid by the government was six cents.

As well as keeping market prices low, African governments have failed to spend money on supporting agriculture. An FAO study of 10 African countries showed that they spent, on average, only 10% of their budgets on agriculture,

(continued)

Africa's political realities preclude famine solutions

Gwynne Dyer

LONDON — . . . What is wrong with Africa? The French development expert Rene Dumont, whose book *False Start in Africa* prophesied much of this disaster a quarter-century ago, argues that the cause is basically post-independence political patterns.

"Cities are dangerous for politicians," he said in a 1985 interview. "They are filled with the unemployed. Poor cities must be fed with cheap food. The politicians fix prices for cereals from the countryside at too low a level."

So it is not worth the peasants' while to grow food for sale, and they either lapse back into subsistence agriculture or abandon their land entirely and swell the politically dangerous ranks of the urban unemployed. In the past two decades, the proportion of Africans living—or rather, barely surviving—in urban areas has doubled to 22 per cent.

It is especially hard to African governments to break this vicious circle because richer city dwellers—the bureaucratic and military elites who are equally important to any African leader's political survival—expect a European standard of living. To keep them loyal, the luxury goods of the industrialized world must be imported for hard cash.

So to get the foreign exchange, many African countries encourage their farmers to switch from food to cash crops like peanuts or cotton.

(Times-Colonist, May 17/88)

Printed by permission of Gwynne Dyer

though agriculture accounted for an average of almost 40 per cent of their GDP*.

If you want people to stay on their farms and produce food , you've got to pay them a reasonable amount of money, and give them a reasonable amount of help.

* GDP—Gross Domestic Product—is very similar to GNP—Gross National Product. It refers to the total of everything that these countries produced during the year.

AGRICULTURE IN AFRICA

This table, containing the latest World Bank figures, shows that agriculture is a major income-earner and employer in many African countries.

COUNTRY	% GNP from agric. (1986)	% employed in agriculture (1980)	COUNTRY	% GNP from agric. (1986)	% employed in agriculture (1980)
Benin	49	70	Nigeria	41	68
Botswana	4	70	Rwanda	40	93
Burkina Faso	45	87	Senegal	22	81
Burundi	58	93	Sierra Leone	45	70
Cameroon	22	70	Somalia	58	76
Central Afr Rep	41	72	South Africa	6	17
Congo	8	62	Sudan	35	71
Ethiopia	48	80	Tanzania	59	86
Gabon	10	75	Togo	32	73
Ghana	45	56	Uganda	76	86
Guinea	40	81	Zaire	29	72
Ivory Coast	36	65	Zambia	11	73
Kenya	30	81	Zimbabwe	11	73
Lesotho	21	86			
Liberia	37	74	SOME COMPARISON FIGURES		
Malawi	37	83	Canada	3	5
Mali	50	86	U.S.	2	4
Madagascar	43	81	Sweden	3	6
Mauritania	34	69	Mexico	9	37
Mozambique	35	85	India	32	70
Niger	46	91			

(World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

2. western bias

Government agricultural extension worker:

"I don't believe you're going to get any apples off that tree this year."

Farmer: "I reckon you're right, son. That's a pear tree."

(Ancient joke, told, using different species, about government extension workers in many countries)

From **AFRICA IN CRISIS** by Lloyd Timberlake, Published by Earthscan Publications

This joke expresses a truth that we're only now beginning to realize: the African farmer often knows more than the western-trained "expert" who is sent out to dispense advice. Here's what one western observer says about the African farmer:

"Africa's peasants, in my experience, are among the most inventive and adaptable in the world. They have to be, because they are dealing with the most varied and unpredictable environment in the world. They are always open to new varieties, even to new crops, that can make the best of their limited resources. Long before the Europeans moved in, Africans had adopted and spread exotic plants: cassava; maize; bananas; sugar; tobacco."

*(Paul Harrison, **The Greening of Africa**. London: Paladin, 1987. Copyright International Institute for Environment and Development)*

Western experts, and African experts with western training, launched the newly independent African countries into agricultural programs which required chemical inputs and tractors. Traditional African practices, such as inter-cropping (the growing of multiple crops together) were frowned upon. Recent agricultural tests show that practices such as intercropping are more productive, and more adapted to the fragile Africal soil, than many of the western methods.

Western agriculturalists do have valuable advice to offer African agriculture. African farmers need help to increase the productivity of their land and to restore nutrients to the soil in the face of increasing population pressure. They need research on new plant strains and new methods. But they also need to be listened to.

URBAN + WESTERN BIAS COMBINED = EXPORT CROPS

One aspect of Urban Bias, mentioned by Gwynne Dyer in the article *Africa's Political Realities Preclude Famine Solutions*, p. 2, is the need to provided wealthy city-dwellers with imported luxuries, luxuries which require foreign exchange—international currency, which can only be gained by selling on the international market—to buy. The major resource of many African countries is their farmland; the way to get money for foreign purchases— cars, appliances, or arms—is to grow crops—coffee, peanuts, cocoa—for export.

Experts on development have continually clashed on the matter of export crops; to export or not to export is a major question in the developing world.

Instead of growing fruit and vegetables for wealthy northerners, we should be feeding our own people with that land!

How can Africa ever advance without getting foreign exchange by selling crops?

If we grew our own food we wouldn't need to pay for imports!

What about things we **do** need, like medicines? How are we going to pay for them unless we export our crops?

Let's look at some of the problems raised by export cropping:

a) The Cash Squeeze:

Cash crops are producing less and less cash. As we saw in ECONOMICS, commodity prices are declining in buying power.

b) The Land Squeeze:

When you use land for cash crops, you have less land for food crops. The result is often malnutrition. In the 1984 drought, Zimbabwe and Kenya imported 26,000 and 39,000 tons of maize, respectively, to feed their populations. At the same time, Zimbabwe announced a record harvest of tobacco, soya beans and cotton for export, and Kenya was exporting strawberries and asparagus to Europe.

In the developing world, the area under cereal or root crops has increased by 2% since the mid-1970s, while the area under export crops—coffee, sugar, and soya beans—has increased by 50%.

c) The Labour Squeeze:

Africa, despite its population, is short of labour. In ENVIRONMENT, we'll read about the tsetse fly, a small insect which has made it impossible, in much of Africa, to use horses and oxen for agricultural work. In the Sahel, the main cash crops are peanuts and cotton. Planting times for peanuts and cotton are about the same time as for sorghum and millet, the food crops. The planting, weeding and harvesting of both cash crops and food crops must be carried out between June and October. This means that labour is spread very thin.

d) The Attention Squeeze:

Cash crops get more help, advice and credit than food crops from governments, and also from aid agencies and development banks. In 1978 - 79, for instance, the Tanzanian Rural Development Bank lent 62 per cent of its money to tobacco growers, and 19 per cent to maize growers.

e) The Research Squeeze:

Research in new strains of seed, fertilizers, and planting methods is generally directed towards export crops. In 1980, there was only one Zambian research agronomist working on cassava in Zambia. Cassava is grown by over half the Zambian rural population and is a staple food. In drought years, cassava is the food crop that survives the longest.

UPDATE MALAWI

President-for-Life Hastings Kamuzu Banda's government is facing its worst threat of famine in nearly a decade, with some 200,000 tons of maize needed before April to avoid the likelihood of widespread starvation. The acute maize shortage in a country which has until recently been self-sufficient in food highlights not only the problems of drought, crop pests, and the additional burden of more than 370,000 refugees from neighboring Mozambique, but also exposes the failure of Banda's present agricultural policy.

In recent years, Banda has encouraged smallholders to plant a greater quantity of tobacco to increase export earnings, leading farmers to use more land for cash crops at the expense of maize, the country's staple food. As a result, maize production, which already fell by 4.5 percent in 1986, has continued to do so with the onset of the drought.

(Africa Report, March/April 1988)

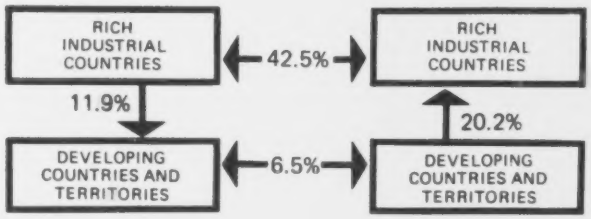
f) The Environmental Squeeze:

What happens when people are forced to overcultivate inadequate land plots? Or to cultivate less fertile land? We'll look more closely at this in Part 6: ENVIRONMENT.

The question "to export or not to export" is not really an all-or-nothing question. Can you see some middle ground which would help Africa get some foreign exchange, while at the same time increasing food production for local consumption?

Who Feeds Whom?

Food trade as percentage of world total.[20]



New Internationalist, June 1986

EXPORT CROPS AND MULTINATIONALS WHO CALLS THE SHOTS?

The words "multinational company" and "transnational company" are relatively new ones, coined to describe a phenomenon which has emerged since the end of World War II. Both words mean the same thing: giant international companies, their head offices in the First World, with subsidiaries in many countries. In the past thirty years these companies have grown not only horizontally—controlling more land, factories, etc.—but also vertically—controlling more aspects of the total production process of a commodity.

Just four major multinationals control 80 per cent of cocoa sales. Two companies—Nestlé and General Foods—are the world's major coffee buyers, and together hold 20 per cent of the world market. Unilever dominates the world trade in palm oil and controls one-third of world margarine and table oil sales. Six companies control 80 to 95 per cent of the tobacco market.

How does this affect Africa?

★ Conflicting interests:

Sometimes company interests are different from the interests of a developing country.

MOZAMBIQUE:

Sena Sugar Estates in Mozambique dropped production steadily after Independence in 1974, having made healthy profits up to this time. It then ran up debts with the Bank of Mozambique, the US Eximbank and the South African Industrial Development Corporation. The company claimed that its losses were solely due to the low sugar prices then prevailing. However the Mozambique government was skeptical, particularly when it discovered that the company had left 70 per cent of its 1977 cane crop unharvested.

Why might it be profitable for a company to leave sugar unharvested?
What would this do the employment level of Mozambique? Mozambique's foreign exchange situation?

★ Going it alone:

It is very difficult for any country to "go it alone" and bypass the multinationals. In 1963, soon after independence, the Tanzanian government set up a factory to make instant coffee. But who would buy their coffee? Who had ever heard of Africafe? Tanzania didn't have an advertising budget to compete with Nestlé or General Foods. Finally, the Tanzanian Government signed a contract with Nestlé to manage and market their product. This has not been very successful; some observers feel that Nestlé wasn't too interested in marketing Africafe intensively; the factory only produces half of its maximum capacity, because of lack of markets.

The Nestlé management in Tanzania has done well, however. In 1973, the wages of the two First World Nestlé employees exceeded the wage bill of the entire Tanzanian work force of 80 people.

★ introducing new western tastes into Africa:

The staple food of Zaire was once maize and manioc. It is now imported American wheat, milled in Zaire by the Continental grain company.

Kenya once supported 18 soap firms, producing from local raw materials all the soap and detergent which Kenyans needed. Now, most Kenyans buy imported soap. Here's what an Anglican Bishop in the South of Kenya, Dr. Henry Okullu, wrote:

> ***"The quality of the multinationals' soap is not always better than the local products, but it's publicised and packaged as though the good life depends on it. All part of a 'taste-transfer' process that is turning Kenya into a Western-style consumer society."***
>
> (quoted in Dinham & Hines, ***Agribusiness in Africa***, London: Earth Resources Research Ltd., 1983))

★ taking profits out of the country:

The multinational soap manufacturers in Kenya transferred 87 per cent of their profits abroad.

★ mining the land:

The large plantations owned or controlled by multinationals generally depend on a high-tech, mechanized and chemical-based style of farming, which leads to low levels of employment and to environmental problems.

3. male bias

Mystery of the "Invisible" Farmers

The farmers in a village in Nigeria are of two different sorts:

Farmers Group A	Farmers Group B
-Grow yams and cassava—the basis of villagers' diet	-Grow cocoa—a cash crop
-Grow food to be eaten in the village or sold at local market.	-Sell cocoa to the Government of Nigeria which exports it
-Cultivate poorer quality land	-Cultivate the best quality land
-Irrigate some of their land by fetching water by bucket	-Irrigate their land by a system of channels, supplied by a nearby river
-Use hand hoes/ other hand tools	-Also use hand tools
-Take nearly all responsibility for preparing food to eat and looking after the children in the village	-Have no involvement with cooking or childcare

Which group of farmers probably earns the most money?
Which group does the harder work?
Which group feeds the village?

A man from the Ministry of Agriculture visits the village. He plans to boost food production by providing the village with a well and pump, cheap fertilizer, and agriculture training. The man talks only to the farmers in group B.

THE QUESTION: Why are the farmers in Group A "invisible"?

(Adapted from Cooke, Teaching Development Issues, Food, Development Education Project, 1986)

Zambia must heed its women

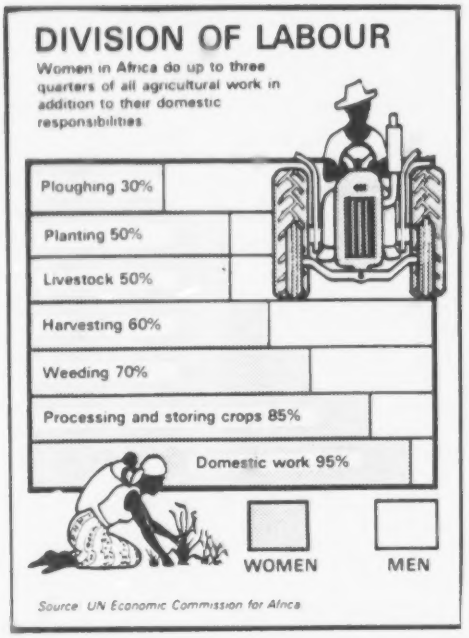
Some four years ago President Kenneth Kaunda warned the nation that its copper reserves would be exhausted by the end of this century. Agriculture was the obvious, and perhaps the only, alternative to the copper industry. But the nation's hoe was rusty, wielded mainly by over-worked rural women. By this time the copper mines and cities had siphoned off able-bodied adult men who rejected farm drudgery in favour of waged jobs.

The remaining women are beset by a host of energy-draining problems: water supplies growing more distant because of drought; diminishing fuelwood; and labour shortages. They are also faced with the necessity of finding a way to earn cash to buy items like household implements and school uniforms for their children.

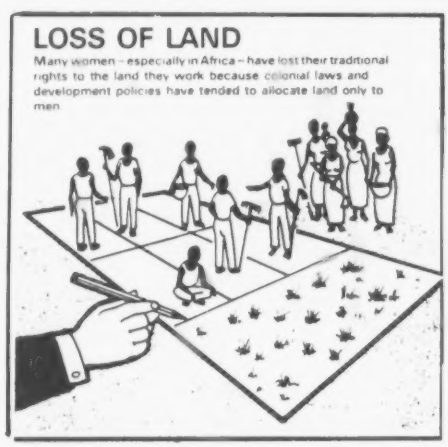
Where men remain on the land, they tend to plant cash crops. The women are expected to find time to help, though they are excluded from decision making and from spending much of the proceeds. ...

Women perform all the tasks involved in the cultivation and processing (grinding, shelling, drying) of food. In the past, the whole community pitched in to help with the harvest, but rural depopulation is now so serious in some areas that there are not enough hands to get the harvest in.

Maize, now growing in popularity, was never the principal subsistence crop of Zambians. But first colonial administrators, then foreign advisors, encouraged maize farming. They ignored women farmers and placed control of the cash crops in the hands of men.



New Internationalist Calendar 1987


LOSS OF LAND
Many women – especially in Africa – have lost their traditional rights to the land they work because colonial laws and development policies have tended to allocate land only to men

New Internationalist Calendar 1987

It is estimated that a third of Zambia's rural households are headed by women. They do not produce any maize for sale and therefore are not visited by the Government's agricultural extension workers. The extension workers cannot offer any useful advice, because their training has ignored traditional crops. They do not consider women to be "real" farmers.

The particular hybrid maize (SR52) which has been introduced in Zambia requires a long growing season. It is more sensitive to smaller environmental fluctuations—in soil type, temperature, rainfall, fertilizer and weeding—than the traditional maize....

The traditional agriculture of women, on the other hand, stood up well to variations in climate and conditions. By cultivating a number of different crops it ensured that, whatever the weather, some of them would survive. It also made sure that fragile soils were not over-worked.

*(**Development Forum**, September 87)*

Meanwhile, back on the home front . . .

Gee, I'm sure glad that we don't have any of these problems in Canada!

Hold yer horses, son! Let me tell you about some of the problems we Canadian farmers face.

American, African farmers: common maladies

At first glance, U.S. and Canadian farmers seem to have little in common with their counterparts in Africa. North American farmers, it is popularly believed, are busy feeding the world, benefiting from the latest technologies, while Africa's peasant farmers can hardly feed themselves with their impoverished lands and pre-industrial techniques.

A closer look, however, reveals a broad spectrum of shared problems. These are coming into sharper focus as the farm crisis deepens in both the U.S. and, increasingly, in Canada, drawing our attention from the plight of drought-plagued farmers in Africa to the problems which threaten to drive 20 per cent of North American farmers from their lands by the end of 1986.

Technical and ecological questions aside, farmers, particularly the smaller "family" farmers on both continents, face price, credit and marketing problems which undermine their ability to make a decent living. For a variety of reasons, farmers are increasingly unable to secure sufficient credit to get from one harvest to the next. They are victims of national agricultural policies which artificially drive down food prices and force them out of business.

In the longer term, farmers on both continents are rapidly depleting their lands as they desperately try to maintain profitable production levels. Suddenly, the ecological ruin of massive soil erosion and desertification, long the bane of the African Sahel, is causing alarm among Midwesterners as they witness worsening dust storms each season and, in some key areas, dwindling water resources. Farmers in Saskatchewan, for example, have seen their crops ravished by three consecutive years of drought.

NGOs such as the Canadian National Farmers Union are increasingly aware of the parallels between their situation and those of third world farmers who also produce cash crops. "Whether it's Canadian wheat or Sudanese cotton, farmers have virtually no control over the commodities they produce and usually no reward for producing them well," said Paul Beach of the National Farmers' Union.

(Africa Emergency Report, April/May 86)

Farm wives' other lives

Rural women take on a triple workload in last attempt to save family business

BY GEOFFREY YORK
The Globe and Mail
SHAUNAVON, Sask.

Barbara Wright, a 32-year-old farm wife with two small children, works as many as 12 hours a day for the minimum wage at a local grocery store....

After five years of declining grain prices and periodic drought, it is the women who are sustaining prairie farms....Many of the women are juggling three difficult responsibilities: They work at a job during the day, they work on the farm during the evening, and they stay up until midnight doing the housework....

Recent studies have confirmed that the workload tends to be heaviest for the women. A survey of 414 farm families in Alberta in 1985 found that the average farm wife worked 11.8 hours each day. The typical day included 9.4 hours of household work, 2.4 hours of off-farm employment, 1.7 hours of farm work. (The total exceeds 11.8 hours because some categories overlap. A woman might, for instance, combine child care with farm work.)

The average male farmer worked 8.9 hours a day.

The Alberta survey concluded that women's work on the farm is often "invisible." One farmer told the researchers that his wife did no farm work. "She just picks rocks, runs errands and does the books," he said.

The Globe and Mail, July 18, 1988

TURNING THE SITUATION AROUND:

WHAT WORKS/ WHAT DOESN'T

1. FOOD AID: Blessing or Curse?

Sending surplus food to countries which don't have enough seems a good idea. It may be the only way to meet an immediate need for food. But experts differ on whether food aid, if administered on a long-term basis, is a good idea. Here are two viewpoints:

PRO:

- Food aid replaces commercial imports of food, so that the developing country can use its scarce foreign exchange to buy other needed items.
- Food aid can stabilize food supplies during times of shortage, and thus increase the ability of the government to implement necessary reforms, knowing that they won't have to put aside foreign exchange in case of sudden food shortages.

CON:

- Food aid can take the heat off governments who should be examining their own agricultural sector.
- Local farmers cannot compete with cheap or free food. Food aid, if continued past a time of immediate crisis, becomes one more force driving down the prices paid to the farmer.
- Food aid is sometimes the first introduction to western food tastes. Many African countries now spend their precious foreign exchange to import wheat, for instance, because their people prefer it to local staple products.

Several major donors, such as the World Food Programme (the food aid arm of the UN and supplier of a quarter of the world's food aid), have attempted to overcome the problems raised by food aid by introducing "food for work" programs, encouraging the people to build roads, wells or work on conservation projects with payments of free food.

What a great idea! People could get some good long-term development projects going, and earn food for their families at the same time!

Yes, but what happens when the food aid stops? Will they maintain the project, or will they sit around and wait for more food to arrive?

This dilemma is a tough one. Africa observers like Paul Harrison feel that projects are most effective when the community participates and works without payment; only then will they feel that the project is *theirs*, that they are responsible for it.

Food aid is only one form of aid; for more about development aid, see Part 4: Trade, Aid & Debt.

Food bank seeks grain donations for African famine relief project

By Stevens Wild

A Winnipeg-based international food bank wants Western grain farmers to donate 15,000 tonnes of grain to assist African countries, ravaged by drought and civil war.

Canadian Foodgrains Bank has launched a grain drive—called Project Africa—as part of its effort to raise 40,000 tonnes for Ethiopia and Mozambique this year, said Bert Loewen, executive director of the bank....***Winnipeg Free Press**, Oct. 2/87*

Since farmers rely on food exports, they're also very interested in the international impact of low priced grain or free food aid and the disincentives to production that they create for the more vulnerable third world farmer. Over half of food aid to Africa last year came from the U.S. and Canada.

Africa Emergency Report, April/May 86

2. A GREEN REVOLUTION FOR AFRICA

Well, couldn't we modify the Green Revolution?

The Green Revolution — it sounds wonderful. New seeds, agricultural methods, fertilizers, tractors. . .

Hey, wait! This all sounds a bit pricey to me! Are you sure it's the answer for Africa?

In the 1970s, a determined effort was made in a number of Asian countries to increase food production and wipe out hunger. The method was the "Green Revolution"—high yield "miracle seeds" which would respond very well if they had appropriate fertilizers, herbicides and irrigation. While the Green Revolution did help countries like India increase food production, critics of the revolution argue that it did not wipe out hunger, but made some people richer and others poorer. Those farmers who were already wealthy could benefit from the new technology; those who were too poor to pay for all the inputs could no longer compete, and were forced to sell their land to the rich. Thus, while India by the late 70s had managed to produce a food surplus, half of India's rural population was living under the poverty line.

While by far the majority of agricultural research funding is diverted to research on export crops, there are two institutions which are working hard on food crop research for Africa.

International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA)

Founded in 1967 in Ibadan, Nigeria, this institute deals with crops like cassava, yams, sweet potatoes, maize and soybeans. One of its successes is TMS 30572, a strain of cassava resistant to the two main diseases, which gives yields 40 to 100 per cent better than local varieties, shades the soil more, and protects soil from erosion. This seed is now spreading over West Africa as fast as farmers can get it.

International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT)

Founded in 1972 in Niger, this institute is breeding varieties that will perform at least as well as local varieties, but which will respond to gradually increased inputs with better and better yields, so that farmers have some incentive to increase their inputs. The varieties must mature early, since the rainy season in the Sahel is shrinking. In 1983, the ICRISAT released the sorghum Hageen-Dura 1. Even in the drought year of 1984, Hageen-Dura 1 gave farmers average yields of one tonne—double the average Sudanese sorghum yield in normal years. By 1985, Hageen-Dura 1 covered 40,000 hectares and was spreading fast.

A truly African Green Revolution will be based on an awareness of the traditional skills and conditions of the African farmer.

What we need is a 'gene' evolution

"Up until now, much of the research has been aimed at bending the environment to suit the needs of the plant (if the soil is too dry, water it; if it lacks nutrients, fertilize it), whereas what is needed is to find plants that can be made to fit the fragile and vulnerable environment of Africa."

*(B.Walker, **Authentic Development in Africa.** NY: Headline Series, 1985)*

What we need is an African Green Revolution

"Africa's green revolution cannot be the same as Asia's. It must, at least to begin with, be low-cost, relying on the very cheapest technologies that provide the highest pay-offs at the least risk. It must...depend as little as possible on imports."

*(P Harrison, **The Greening of Africa.** London: Paladin, 1987)*

3. RURAL SELF-HELP

"When the farmers are given responsibility, they are capable of incredible miracles."

-Halidou Sawadoge, Burkina Faso farmer

A peoples' movement: the Naam movement in Burkina Faso

To make the village responsible for its own development, developing without destroying, starting from the peasant: what he is, what he knows, what he knows how to do, how he lives, and what he wants.

This is the principle of Bernard Ledea Ouedraogo, the founder of the Naam self-help movement in Burkina Faso. The Naam groups, of which there were 1350 in 1985, are village self-help associations. Naam groups have built wells and dams, set up vegetable gardens, planted village woodlots, built village shops and mills. With a minumum of expert help from a central organization, people in these village organizations decide themselves what they need, and provide volunteer labour to get it. Sometimes they need outside donors to help provide some materials; often they pool their own resources.

Paul Harrison has this to say about the work of one group of villagers:

"When I was there the people of Somiaga and neighbouring villages were putting the finishing touches to what is the pride of the Naam movement—an enormous dam, 180 metres long and 4 metres deep, that will eventually irrigate 50 - 60 hectares of rice, potatoes, vegetables and fruit trees. It will raise the level of water in local wells, make it easier to water tree seedlings in their crucial first year, and provide an ample source of fish.

The Naam animator for Somiaga, Madi Ouedraogo, told me that in the recent run of dry years ... 'We saw that in the dry season our people had nothing to drink, our animals had nothing to drink, and our wells dried up. But in the wet season we watched the water rushing by, sheeting over the dead land, roaring down the gullies, washing away.' In 1981 they started to build a dam without any outside help, from piled-up stones. But a heavy storm in the rains of that year washed it away.

They asked Six 'S' [the central organization] for help. The association brought in an engineer. An earthmover was hired for the two wings of the dam, but the central stretch of 65 metres was built by hand, save for the concrete spillway. It is a vast structure of 2,300 large rock-filled gabions [nets filled with rocks] stacked eight deep. Villagers came from Somiaga and the sister villages of Becka, Laona, Sissemba, San and Bouri. From November 1982, work proceeded every dry season, three days a week. On the best days up to a thousand people came out — old women loading baskets in the gravel pits, children carrying stones on their heads for eight hours a day under the baking sun....

The dam now stands as a source of pride for everyone who laboured on it, incontrovertible proof of their ability to control their circumstances instead of being controlled by them."

(Paul Harrison, ***The Greening of Africa.*** London: Paladin, 1987, Copyright IIED)

How Governments can Help
A CASE-STUDY OF SUCCESS

CAMEROON

In the 1970s, Cameroon was less than 70 per cent self-sufficient in food. In the last 10 years, this West African country has seen substantial increases in the output of basic foods; maize, yams and potatoes outputs have nearly doubled. The Cameroon government has committed about one quarter of its budget towards agriculture for some time.

Here's what they've done with that money:

- provided half-price fertilizer and low-interest credit;
- funded "adaptive research", which adapts the research carried out in scientific centres and makes it available to farmers in a form they can use. There are 10 demonstration centres where new technologies are tried and tested and then demonstrated to village extension workers who pass on the findings to farmers. They work closely on this with IITA (International Institute of Tropical Agriculture).
- researched new ideas on how to improve storage
- given special help to women farmers, training many women to be village extension workers.

Here are some of the things that have happened:

6,000 maize-growing farmers have increased their yields from 1.6 to 3.0 tonnes per hectare. By the end of 1987, 20,000 maize farmers are expected to be using the new varieties of maize, and new methods of planting.

Women on the move

One Cameroon women's group last year more than doubled its income from potatoes. With advice and credit the government extension service, the women built a storage facility and, in August 1986, put their potatoes into storage rather than sell the crop immediately. In November and December, when potatoes were scarce, the women sold their crop at over twice as much as before.

The chief priority for the extra money the women earn from their food crops is education. Schooling is free but parents have to buy books and uniforms to enable their children to attend school. The illiteracy rate in this area of Cameroon has dropped dramatically from 80 per cent to 50 percent in the past decade.

Cameroon's agricultural policy gives grounds for hope that, provided the right agricultural policies are followed, the potential of the farmers can be released and Africa can feed itself.

Adapted from John Madeley, *"Cameroon reaps reward"*, ***Development Forum***, May 1987

THE LAST WORD ON FOOD: The Small Farmer

"Small farmers must be the focus of all efforts. They constitute the overwhelming majority of farmers in all African countries, and because land is still fairly equally distributed, they account for most of the farmed area. They also make up the majority population, and the majority of the absolutely poor and malnourished. Hence, in Africa, helping the small farmer achieves, simultaneously, four of the most important goals of development. It is the best way of boosting national self-sufficiency in food, the only way of improving the incomes of the majority and of reducing mass poverty and malnutrition, and the only way of conserving the environment of which the African peasant is, for better or for worse, the effective custodian."

(Paul Harrison, The Greening of Africa. London: Paladin, 1987. Copyright IIED.)

Information sources for Food: Chege, "Where Africa Went Wrong", ***Africa Recovery***, Feb. 87; Dinham & Hines, ***Agribusiness in Africa***. London: Earth Resources Research Ltd, 1983; Harrison, ***The Greening of Africa***. London: Earthscan, 1987; Jackson, "Nature Pleads not Guilty", ***New Internationalist***, September 1984; Timberlake, ***Crisis in Africa***. Ottawa: Common Heritage Programme, 1985; Walker, ***Authentic Development in Africa***. NY: Headline Series, 1985

WATER

When you look at a world map, you can see that a lot of the earth is under water; obviously, there's no shortage of water in the world!

BUT

97 per cent of it is in the oceans and is too saline for most human uses. 3 per cent still seems a lot!

BUT

Most of that is locked up as ice in the polar regions and in glaciers.

SO

Earth's population relies primarily on the one-hundredth of one per cent of the world's water. It's about 140 cubic kilometres, enough to cover Saskatchewan to a depth of 20 metres.

Here's how the world uses water:

Irrigation - 70 per cent
Industry - 23 per cent
Domestic water supply (drinking, sanitation, home use)- 7 per cent

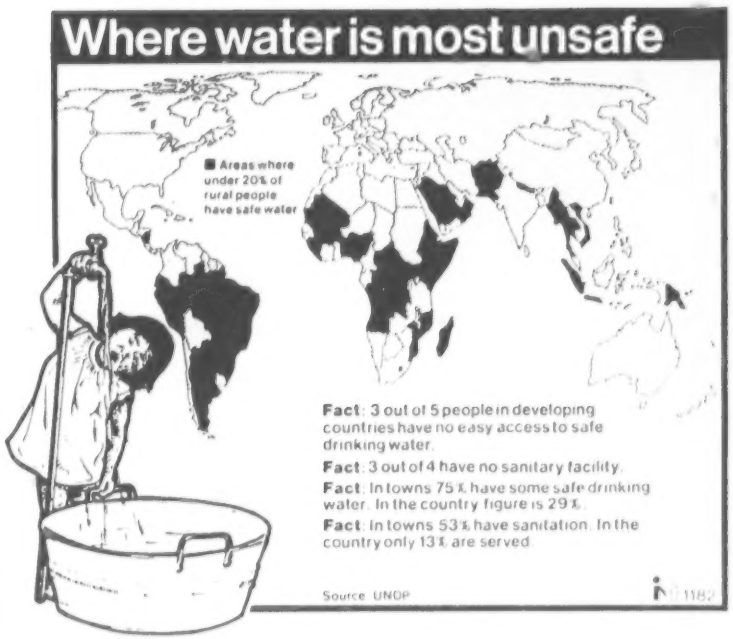
In Canada, we're not used to thinking much about our water supply; among the world's nations, we're fortunate in our water supply, with 110,000 cubic metres per person annually. The United States has 10 per cent of that amount, India 2 per cent, and Egypt 0.1 per cent.

So it's hard for us to imagine what it would be like to be an African woman who must walk for miles, carrying a bucket of water on her head, to provide water—often water that's not pure—for her family. In Africa, about one person in 4 has access to adequate supplies of water for drinking and washing.

As you can see in this table, water-accessibility differs dramatically for rural and urban people.

COUNTRY	% of population with access to safe drinking water 1983	
	Urban	Rural
Mali	46	8
Guinea	69	2
Somalia	65	21
Mozambique	50	7
Burkina Faso	27	31
Angola	90	12
Niger	41	33
Guinea-Bissau	21	37
Senegal	69	27
Liberia	71	20
Rwanda	55	60
Burundi	90	22
Tanzania	88	39
Nigeria	60	30
Uganda	90	7

Figures from UNICEF, State of the World's Children, 1987


Where water is most unsafe
Areas where under 20% of rural people have safe water
Fact: 3 out of 5 people in developing countries have no easy access to safe drinking water.
Fact: 3 out of 4 have no sanitary facility.
Fact: In towns 75% have some safe drinking water. In the country figure is 29%.
Fact: In towns 53% have sanitation. In the country only 13% are served.
Source: UNDP
1182

New Internationalist, October 1984

WHAT HAPPENS WHEN PEOPLE DON'T HAVE SAFE WATER?

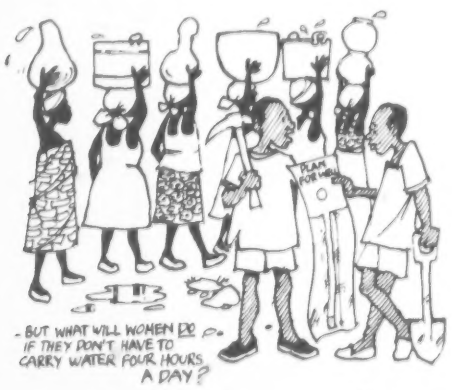
Water-Related Diseases:

In the world at any one time there are probably

* 500 million people with trachoma (often causing blindness)
* 250 million people with elephantiasis
* 200 million people with bilharzia (snail fever)
* 160 million people with malaria
* 100 million people with diarrhoea
* 30 million people with onchocerciasis (river blindness)

The major victims of water-related disease are children. Every hour between 1,000 and 2,500 Third World children under five die because of lack of pure water.

(Agarwal et al, Water, Sanitation, Health — For all?, Earthscan)



TIME SPENT TO FETCH WATER IN THE BAY REGION, SOMALIA

Village	Wet season round-trip	Dry season round-trip
Sarman Dheers	1/2 hour	6 hours
Hareero Jiifo	1 1/2 hrs.	6 hours
Shabelle Dugsilo	1/2 hour	8 hours
Warta Jaffay	1/2 hour	4 hours
Buulo Hawo	1/2 hour	8 hours
Bootis	1/2 hour	6 hrs.

WHAT CAN WE DO ABOUT IT?

You'd think the answer would be easy—dig enough wells, install enough pumps, and all will be well. Over the last 25 years, aid agencies and governments have spent a great deal of money on water projects.

Great! What's the problem, then?

One of the main problems has been maintenance. A recent study by the Ross Institute of Tropical Hygiene in London estimates that 30 per cent of Third World rural water systems are currently out of order.

Then why don't the rural people fix the pumps themselves?

Worst-case water-system scenario:

Government or aid workers arrive at the village with bore-hole drilling equipment, and a cast-iron pump imported from the First World country which is supporting this scheme (with tied aid—a proviso that a certain percentage of the aid must be spent in the donor country). As the villagers gather around, the technicians drill the hole, install the pump, briefly demonstrate how to work it, and leave.

The pump is under intense use. The whole village lines up to use it, and it's working non-stop for 18 hours a day.

A few days later, it stops working.

What should these villagers do?

★ They have no spare parts.
★ They don't know how the pump works.
★ They are far away from the nearest city with government offices.
★ They feel that the pump is not their pump, but belongs to the government or aid officials who installed it.
★ They aren't convinced that the water from the well was much better than their previous water source, anyway.

We are now almost at the end of the UN International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade. The goal of this decade, "clean water and adequate sanitation for all by the year 1990"—estimated to cost $30 billion a year, or $80 million a day—will not be met. The decade has seen significant advances, however, the greatest one being the change of attitude of governments and donor agencies towards the rural people. They are beginning to see that, just as in any type of development PEOPLE MATTER. It is not enough to drill wells; the communities involved must have a part in the planning, implementation and maintenance of their water systems. We are all beginning to realize that, for a water project to be successful:

❑ village people must decide for themselves what kind of a water system they would like.
❑ the technology must be simple, cheap, and durable.
❑ village people must understand the technology, and someone chosen by the village must be able to maintain it.
❑ village people must contribute labour and/or money to the project, so that *they*, not the government, own it.

Case Study From Malawi

Although Malawi is one of the poorest developing countries, it is one of the few countries which is almost certain to meet the "Clean Water for All" target by 1990. Up until 1977, Malawi's approach to increasing water supply was to dig 4,000 deep boreholes with hand pumps. Each borehole, which served 130 people, cost $4,000, plus $70 per year to maintain.

Then a new plan, involving gravity-fed supply from perennial streams, was developed. Now, projects are undertaken only when requested by community representatives. Village leaders establish a committee to organize construction, and work begins. Women, men and children all join in the work of digging trenches, bringing their own digging tools. Pipe, produced in Malawi from imported PVC, is laid by the villagers. The site for each village tap is chosen by the villagers, who also construct a concrete apron around it and a concrete drain into a soakway. The project is maintained by village volunteers, after a two-week government training course.

HEALTH

"The public health services of the 67 poorest developing countries, excluding China, spend less in total than the rich countries spend on tranquilizers." *(Dr. Halfdan Mahler, Director General, World Health Organization)*

World Health Forum,, 2(1), 1981

"Simple diarrhea will kill more people in the 80s than the Bubonic Plague did through all the Middle Ages."

CIDA, ***Development***, Summer 1985

"The number of water taps per 1,000 persons is a better indication of health than the number of hospital beds."

World Health Organization

PREVENTATIVE VERSUS CURATIVE HEALTH CARE

In the distribution of health services, as in other goods and services, there are many different inequities—inequity between North and South, and inequity within countries. In Britain, a 1980 report, *Inequalities in Health*, showed that the poorest suffer more illness and are more likely to die in infancy than the affluent.

One of the chief ways we measure health within a country is the number of people per physician. In 1984 in sub-Saharan Africa, there were 13,500 people for every physician. (In Canada, the figure was 508.) A pretty discouraging figure. Most African nations spent the first two decades of independence committing the largest part of their budget to building expensive hospitals in their cities. This, of course, meant that most rural people had no access to the health care system. In Ghana in 1980, 90 per cent of the rural areas shared 15 per cent of the national health budget.

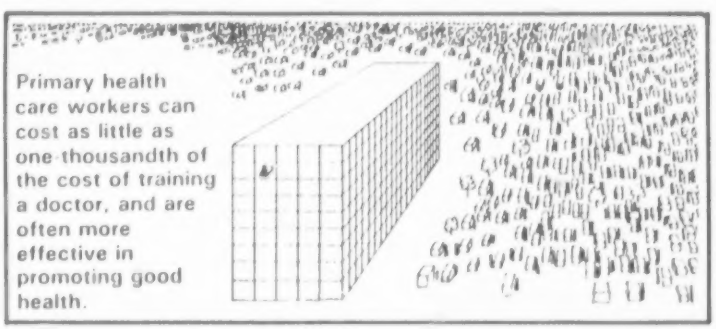
"To me, health means having a hospital nearby, and health insurance."

"To me, health means having enough to eat, and clean water. That way, Allah willing, I won't need the hospital."

PREVENTATIVE HEALTH

In Canada: Increasingly, Canadians are beginning to question the use of "a pill for every ill", and instead to try to prevent diseases by living a healthy life style—a good diet and exercise.

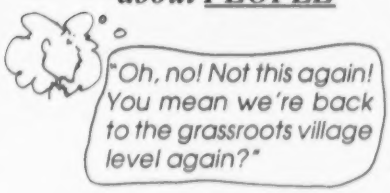
In Africa and other developing regions: In 1978, 150 nations endorsed a new strategy to achieve health for all by the year 2000. The strategy was called **Primary Health Care**. It shifted the emphasis from an urban to a rural approach, from high-cost curative methods to low-cost preventative methods.



Primary health care workers can cost as little as one-thousandth of the cost of training a doctor, and are often more effective in promoting good health.

New Internationalist

PRIMARILY, Primary Health Care is about <u>PEOPLE</u>



Primary health care involves people taking responsibility for their own health. The basic unit of PHC is the community. The community chooses a health-care worker, who will receive a short period of training. Sometimes the government pays the worker, sometimes the village pays the worker.

The primary health-care worker's little black bag:

Sanitation and water: encouraging the building of latrines and basic, cheap water-filtering systems

Maternal and baby health:

★ encouraging child spacing and prolonged breast feeding (In north Sudan, children spaced less than two years apart are twice as likely to die before their first birthday than children spaced more than four years apart.)

★ supplementary feeding for pregnant women

Child health:

★ ORT (oral rehydration therapy), a cheap mixture of salt, sugar and water, which prevents dehydration caused by diarrhoea. In the Gambia, in an eight-month training campaign, two-thirds of all mothers learned how to mix the solution and 40 per cent had started to use it.

★ immunization—6 major diseases can be prevented by immunization: diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough, polio, tuberculosis and measles. These diseases kill 5 million children per year, and disable another 5 million. A lifetime's protection costs $5 per child.

Case Study in Success: SENEGAL

In 1985, fewer than 10% of Senegal's children were immunized and vaccine-preventable diseases were killing 30,000 children a year. Today, approximately 70% are protected against TB, diphtheria, whooping cough, tetanus, polio, measles, and yellow fever.

How did Senegal, one of the 30 poorest nations in the world, achieve this?

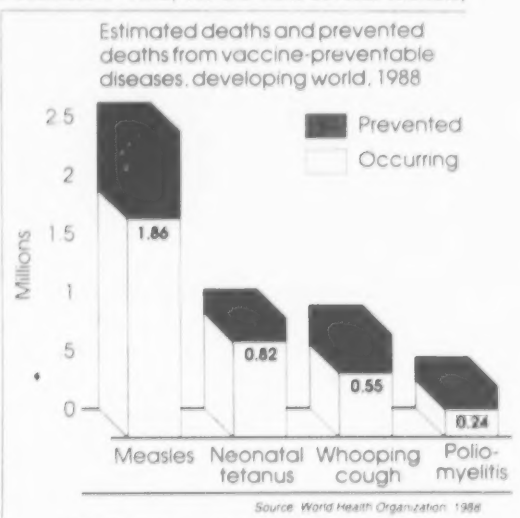
In October 1986, President Diouf announced the target date: by April 1987, Senegal would try to vaccinate 75% of its children. "Vaccination," announced Mr. Diouf, "is everybody's business". And, for the next several months, vaccination *became* everybody's business. Radio stations and newspapers advertized the benefits of vaccination. But the major communication channel was *people*. Throughout the country, neighbourhood heads and local council members held meetings or visited parents at home. Thousands of *griots*—traditional story-tellers and messengers—beat the drums to announce the arrival of the immunization teams.

Women's organizations held meetings. Tens of thousands of schoolchildren, Boy Scouts and Girl Guides went from house to house, informing parents of the time and place of the nearest vaccination session. Youth and sports organizations wore T-shirts saying "Vaccination for all children."

Vaccination was made available to all the nation's 650 health centres, and mobile teams travelled great distances over rough terrain so that no parent would have to bring a child more than 5 kilometres.

Senegal's triumph demonstrates how a low-income country can mobilize its human resources to increase demand for, and access to, immunization .

(Information source: UNICEF, State of the World's Children 1988)



(UNICEF, State of the World's Children 1989)

How is the First World helping?

The First World, including Canada, is helping with its aid programs. CIDA, Canada's aid branch, gives priority to water supply and to primary health care. In some ways, however, the First World is hindering the growth of health in the developing world.

EXPORTING ILL-HEALTH

1. THE DRUG DEBATE

"On open market stalls in Upper Volta red and yellow capsules of antibiotics are displayed for sale alongside equally colourful sweets. Poor people buy just one or two capsules at a time to treat themselves. They have no idea the antibiotics are not fully effective unless you take a complete course, or that tetracycline, left out in the heat and humidity, can become toxic. But the main hazard from the uncontrolled use of antibiotics is that bacteria build up resistance to drugs. A poor community can find itself with no alternatives to the drugs that no longer work."

*(Melrose, **Bitter Pills**, OXFAM, 1982)*

In order to try to combat the indiscriminate use of pills in the developing world, the World Health Organization has identified 200 essential drugs, most of which are relatively safe and cost-effective. WHO urges individual countries to make a much more limited selection of drugs for their priority needs in primary health care. Some countries have acted on this; in 1982, the Bangladesh government banned 1,700 drugs which were considered to be either dangerous, too expensive or unnecessary. They identified 150 essential drugs, which should be made more easily available.

*(Melrose, **Bitter Pills**, and Cooke, **Health, Teaching Development Issues**, Development Education Project, 1986)*

2. DUMPING ON THE THIRD WORLD

Bottle battle

The Nestlé boycott, which resulted in the baby-milk companies promising to uphold the 1981 WHO International Code of Marketing of Breast Milk Substitutes, was a major victory for health campaigners. The boycott campaign protected women from being subjected to marketing that was biased against breast-feeding. But the multinational companies involved are backsliding on this agreement, particularly in the Third World, and in October 1988, a new boycott was begun.

Why shouldn't African women use infant formula for their babies? (Consider the water situation, the cash and the health situation.) Why would companies like Nestlé want to push infant formula in the Third World? Why would Third World women decide to use infant formula?)

Asbestos exports

Canada helps a killer industry

Canada is the world's biggest exporter of asbestos, but its $300 million industry faces collapse unless it can find new markets. So officials from the Montreal-based Asbestos Institute have been campaigning in Third World countries to rehabilitate the reputation of asbestos—although it is known to cause lung cancer and the disease asbestosis.

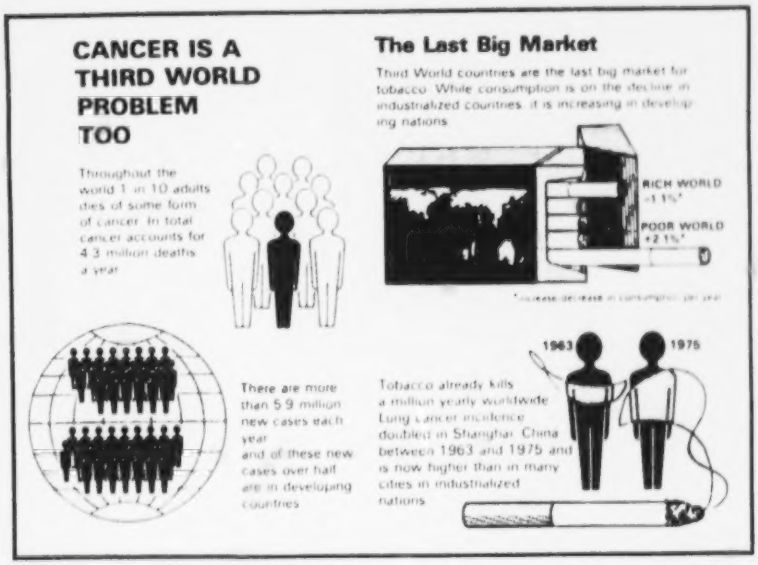
*(**New Internationalist**, March 1988)*

Toxic trade

Poison soap

"Poisoning Africans is alright", appears to be the message from the Irish Government. It has given the go-ahead—and a $3 million grant—to a British company which plans to manufacture soap containing mercuric iodide for export to Africa, where it is used to lighten skin colour.

The soap can cause foetal damage, anaemia and kidney failure if too much is absorbed through the skin. The EEC has banned the marketing of cosmetic products containing mercury in its own member states. But production of such cosmetics for export remains perfectly legal. And attempts by several African countries, including Zimbabwe, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa to ban sales of these soaps do not seem to have done much to lessen their widespread use. *(New Internationalist, Feb. 1988)*


CANCER IS A THIRD WORLD PROBLEM TOO
Throughout the world 1 in 10 adults dies of some form of cancer. In total cancer accounts for 4.3 million deaths a year
There are more than 5.9 million new cases each year and of these new cases over half are in developing countries
The Last Big Market
Third World countries are the last big market for tobacco. While consumption is on the decline in industrialized countries, it is increasing in developing nations
RICH WORLD -1.1%*
POOR WORLD +2.1%*
Tobacco already kills a million yearly worldwide. Lung cancer incidence doubled in Shanghai, China between 1963 and 1975 and is now higher than in many cities in industrialized nations
1963
1975

New Internationalist

"People in the developing countries don't have a long enough life expectancy to worry about smoking-related problems."
Tobacco Industry Spokesman, quoted in New Internationalist, July/86

Why are First-World Companies so interested in expanding markets for these goods into the Third World? (Consider world population distribution, drug laws, changing tastes in the North)
How can the Third World protect itself against imported ill-health?

ACTIVITIES:

1. Hunger in Canada:

1 million children poor in Canada

Statistics Canada figures show that in 1986, 1,016,000 children under 16 years of age—more than one out of every six—were members of families whose incomes were below the poverty line.

Information from Globe and Mail, April 27/88

Hunger in Canada

At last count, there were 75 food banks operating across the country, with 30 of these in the B.C. region alone. In 1983, the Vancouver Food Bank gave bags of groceries to 71,955 adults and 29,714 children; by 1984 these numbers had risen to 144,250 adults and 53,834 children. Between the years 1981 and 1983, the numbers of Canadians with incomes below the poverty line increased from 3.5 to 4.5 million.

(Toward Global Health, Winter, 1986)

"Food is plentiful, but the hungry and malnourished often have little or no access to it. They neither have the purchasing power to acquire it, nor the inputs necessary to produce it themselves." (U.N. Secretary General Javier Perez de Cuellar, 1987)

(Continued)

While there is enormous disparity between the well-fed and the hungry on a global basis, there is also disparity within Canada. After reading the boxes at the bottom of page 18, discuss in small groups, or write an essay on the following questions:

- Why is there hunger in Canada, when there's so much food?
- Who is responsible for doing something about this situation? (the government? the social service agencies? the individuals themselves?)
- What, if anything, should be done to change this situation?
- How is the situation of a hungry person in Canada similar to that of a hungry person in Africa? How is it different?

2. Who Feeds Whom? Super market Tour:

Visit your local supermarket to see how many of the food products you eat come from Third World countries. Make a list of fruit, vegetable, fish and meat products and the developing countries from which they are imported. In your class, combine your lists and each research one of the major Third World exporting countries involved. What is the GNP of the country? How is wealth distributed? Are there a large number of hungry people in that country?

In class, share your findings, and discuss the following questions:

a) What is a "fair export" plan, which benefits the people in the country itself?

b) What policy should we, as buyers of these products, follow? (Should we boycott all food products from developing countries, or from certain developing countries? Are there ways in which we can support our own food producers?)

3. Food Self-Sufficiency:

The aim of many African countries is to be food self-sufficient—to raise enough food to feed their own people, and reduce food imports to a minimum. Canada, in the past decades, has come to rely less on its own food production and more on imported food. What are the advantages of food self-sufficiency? The disadvantages?

Divide into groups of four, each person taking one of the following roles: a Canadian food producer (a farmer, or orchardist); a Canadian consumer; a representative from a large, food-producing multinational company; a Canadian government official. Each prepare a position paper, then discuss the following question:

What should be Canada's food policy regarding food self-sufficiency?

4. Farmers—Canadian and African:

After reading pages 2 to 8, make a list of problems facing the African farmer. Which problems are shared by Canadian farmers? Working in pairs, write a dialogue which might occur between a Canadian and an African farmer, in which you focus in some of your common problems. (Consider urban bias, prices paid for food, competition from cheap imported food, pressure to go into debt to buy agricultural inputs, problem of getting credit. You may want at least one of your farmers to be a woman.)

5. Food Aid: Blessing or Curse?

Here is the food-aid dilemma seen from two different viewpoints:

The Recipients:

Your country has a growing population, and your food-producing capabilities cannot keep up with this rate of population growth. Your government wants to be completely self-sufficient in food production in the near future. However, the poorest people in your country risk starvation this year if you do not receive food aid immediately.

The farmers don't want food aid. They see this type of aid as eating into their prices, and driving them into bankruptcy, leading eventually to even less food production. The urban poor depend on free food aid, and will probably riot if they don't get it.

GROUP PROBLEM: What sort of food aid should you ask Canada for, given all the factors outlined above?

The Donors:

Your group represents the Canadian agricultural community and the Canadian government. You produce surplusses of food, much of which has to be kept off the market to prevent prices from falling. You view food donations to the poor nations as a solution to problems of overproduction. The Canadian government buys the food at market prices and then donates it to poor countries.

The government representatives are under pressure to solve the food surplus problem. However, they agree with the recipient government's wish to achieve food self-sufficiency.

GROUP PROBLEM: What kind of food aid program should you offer to the recipients, given Canada's food situation?

(continued)

• Each half of the class has 20 minutes to decide upon and record a solution.
• Each group has 10 minutes to study and discuss the solution presented to them by the other side.
• The entire class has 15 minutes to discuss and negotiate.

Evaluate your decision by considering these questions:
★ Was food dependency avoided?
★ Was starvation avoided?

*(Adapted from Canadian Red Cross Society, **Tomorrow's World**)*

6. THINK LITTLE! — The importance of the little guy:

In the areas discussed in this chapter—food, water, health—the basic shift in the past decade has been from large-scale, top-down solutions to small-scale, grassroots solutions. In pairs or individually, write one of following:
a) a dialogue between a World Bank expert, who has consistently encouraged large-scale, mechanized solutions to food production, and water and health provision, and a rural African peasant, who explains what his or her needs are, and how they could best be met.
b) an essay on the topic — "Small farmers must be the focus of all efforts, if Africa is to survive."

7. Water — a simulation:

At home measure out 6 litres of water into a bucket. This amount, which is all that many of the world's people get for a day's use, is all the water you may use for the next 24 hours.

CLASS DISCUSSION:

1) In class, at the end of the 24 hour period, analyze how the water was used, listing uses and grouping them into categories: basic needs (drinking), cleanliness, livelihood (animals, plants, objects that need water), pleasure.
2) Was it possible to make multiple use of the water? (eg. washing/ watering garden)
3) Discuss which items should get priority.
4) How would our lives be changed if we had to reduce our water consumption?

8. Skits: Food, Water & Health

Scenario 1
The Price of Peanuts:
The villagers of a Senegalese village are having a meeting. The guest speaker is a Government Official who is interested in encouraging the village farmers to plant more of their fields in peanuts, to raise badly-needed foreign exchange. Re-enact the meeting. (Read: Export Crops, pages 5-6.)

Scenario 2
Going it Alone:
Representatives of the Tanzanian government are meeting with representatives from Nestlé. They are seeking ways that they can a) increase the demand for their coffee, which hasn't prospered under Nestlé management, and b) become independent of Nestlé, through training of Tanzanian managers. (Read: Going it Alone, page 6)

Scenario 3
Mr. Multinational Comes to Kenya
A large multinational food company wants to set up a pineapple plant in Kenya. Local farmers would be encouraged to plant pineapples to sell the company. These would be boxed in Nairobi, and shipped to Europe, where some would be canned, and others sold fresh. Enact the meeting between the multinational and government representatives. (Outside the door, listening in, is a poor Kenyan farmer who has come to Nairobi to seek work. He has a few things to add to the meeting.) (Read: Export Crops and Multinations: Who calls the Shots? pages 5-6)

Scenario 4
Women Taking Charge
The government of your country has proposed an irrigation scheme for your village, to increase the amount of food grown for export. The man who came to your village to present the scheme consulted only the men. The women are concerned that this scheme will take land away from them, land which they now use to grow food for their families. Your women's organization decides to go as a group to the Department of Agriculture offices in the nearest town, and air your grievances. (Read: Male Bias, pages 6-7)

Scenario 5
Where's the Water?
John/Jane Smith, from Vancouver, B.C., is on a social awareness tour of Burkina Faso, and is living with a village family for three days. On meeting the family, John/Jane wants to get the arrangements straight: Where is the shower? the sink? the toilet? Is the water safe to drink? etc. (Read: Crops and Multinationals: Who calls the Shots? pages 5 to 6)

Scenario 6
Learning from the Third World:
A Canadian consumers group has invited a panel of three guests: a Canadian official from the Department of Health, a Canadian doctor, and the visiting Minister of Health from an African country which, for the past eight years, has adopted a policy of primary health care. The consumers are concerned with Canada's spiralling health costs, and Canadians' high use of prescription and over-the-counter drugs. Is there anything that Canada can learn from Africa in this field? Re-enact the meeting.(Read: Health, pages 15-16)

Part 5: FOOD, WATER AND HEALTH
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

Why are people hungry?

Why has Africa's food supply been decreasing?

How are the provision of water and health linked to community participation?

OVERVIEW:

Part 5 dwells mainly on food, with smaller sections focusing on water and health. The decline of Africa's self-sufficiency in food is attributed to three major biases in African agricultural policy: urban bias, western bias (which includes an emphasis on export crops and control by multinational companies), and male bias. Parallels between the difficulties faced by Canadian farmers and those faced by African farmers are examined. Efforts at solving the problem include food aid (a controversial solution), agricultural research (an African Green Revolution), and—the most promising—rural self-help.

The problem of water is examined: the lack of clean water, the diseases caused by impure water, and the enormous burden of water-collection to women. An insensitively-designed, top-down water-provision scheme is contrasted to the successful self-help plan of the Malawian government.

Primary health care—a system of basic, preventative health care which provides the main hope for Africa—is described. The First World's role in exporting ill-health to the Third World — inappropriate drugs, infant formula, dangerous substances and tobacco—is briefly outlined.

Key Concepts:

- Globally, the problem of food shortage is not one of production, but of distribution.
- The food shortage in Africa can be viewed in terms of 3 biases: urban bias, western bias, and male bias.
- Urban bias: food prices are kept low for the benefit of city dwellers; little government budget is spent on agriculture, even though many African countries derive most of their budgets from, and employ most of their people in, food production.
- Western bias: Western experts have not generally listened to peasant farmers, who have a high degree of expertise in agriculture. The western "big is best" philosophy, along with a bias towards wealthy urban dwellers has meant an over-emphasis on export crops (to gain foreign exchange) and a reliance on multinational corporations.
- Male bias: Half of Africa's farmers are women. It is women who generally grow the food crops, while men concentrate on export crops. But women have been ignored by Africa's agriculture policies.
- Canadian farmers, like African ones, suffer from urban bias (low food prices, lack of credit, competition from cheap imported food), western bias (high-tech farming techniques which have led to debt and environmental degradation), and male bias.
- Attempts to improve food distribution and production have included food aid (criticized because of its negative effect on African farmers); research techniques (which have traditionally stressed improvement of crops for export, rather than food); and rural self-help.
- Rural self-help is regarded by many as the hope of Africa; with just a little help in terms of research, agricultural inputs, and fair prices, the small farmer can do wonders.
- Unsafe water is responsible for many of the world's diseases; nevertheless, many Africans, particularly rural Africans, don't have access to safe water. The carrying of water is a major burden for many African women.
- Solving the water problem is more than just digging wells; people must be involved at the community level in the planning and maintenance of their water systems if they are to operate successfully.
- The Western model of expensive curative medicine is too costly for African governments. Instead, primary health care, which involves people in maintaining their own health, provides some hope for Africa.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

On Food:

A Safety Net (NFB 113C 0187 091--VHS, 29 min.)
This very recent film examines the attempt of African countries such as Ghana to achieve food self-sufficiency. The major emphasis is on the dependency-producing features of food aid and cheap subsidized food. Other problems—the need for better processing facilities, the emphasis on export crops, the lack of adequate research facilities—are also examined. The film gives students some non-standard answers to the food problem that they may not have thought of before.

Pre-Viewing suggestion: This film could serve as an introduction to food problems in Africa. Ghana is a fertile country, yet its people suffer from malnutrition. In 1984, Ghanaians lived on a mere 73 per cent of their calorie requirements. Why is Ghana not feeding itself? Brainstorm suggestions, then ask students to watch the film to find reasons which they hadn't thought of.

Post-viewing discussion:
1. Add to the list of reasons for lack of food self-sufficiency: food aid and cheap, subsidized food, export crops, lack of proper food processing facilities, attention given to export crops, lack of research facilities. What ideas did the students mention which were not covered in the film? (Population increase and drought, for instance, weren't mentioned. Are these real root causes, or do they just worsen the situation?)
2. Have students discuss or write about, one of these two statements from the film:
"The key is helping farmers to produce" (How has Africa failed? What hopes for improvement are there? Are there Canadian parallels?)
"The best foreign aid of the century would be to stop giving us food aid when we don't need it."

The Land, A New Priority (NFB 106C 0176 617, 28 min.)
This 1976 film highlights the efforts in rural development of four countries—Sri Lanka, Kenya, Mauritius, and Pakistan.

Pre-Viewing Suggestion: Before viewing, locate the four countries on a world map. Discuss rural/urban disparity (see p. 2 to 3 (Urban bias) and drinking water table, p. 13). Generally, the rural areas provide the food, without getting much support in return. What are some of the ways the students can see of reversing this pattern? of supporting rural people so that countries could become food self-sufficient?

Post-viewing discussion:
1. Food self-sufficiency: Why is it important for these countries to be food self-sufficient? Is Canada food self-sufficient? Which of the four countries seems to have the best chance to achieve food self-sufficiency? Which one has the worst?

2. Colonialism: What role did the colonial experience play in Sri Lanka, Kenya, and Mauritius? How did the colonial system change the food situation of these countries?

3. Aid: The film proposes that the role of aid be to provide materials and supplies, while the villagers provide the labour. Is this form of aid the most efficient? What are the advantages? disadvantages? Does it help people achieve self-sufficiency?

Roots of Hunger, Roots of Change (NFB 106C 0187 141, 28 min.) This very current and thoughtful film focuses on the reasons for rural poverty in Senegal.

Pre-viewing suggestion: Ask students, as they watch the film, to list all the causes they can see for rural poverty, and all the changes needed to end rural poverty and bring about food self-sufficiency for Senegal.

Post-viewing discussion: Discuss the causes given by the film: colonialism, cash crops, lack of water and tools, urban bias. What changes are needed in Senegal?

On land:

This Borrowed Land (NFB 106C 0184 064, 29 min.)

This film spotlights the land question in Canada. Farmers in the Peace River Valley, as well as facing the problems common to all Canadian farmers—rising agricultural costs, fluctuating prices, weather—must now face the additional uncertainty about whether their community will lose 10,000 acres of prime farmland in order to build the Site-C Dam on the Peace River. The issue of what is most important—using land to grow food, create new energy sources, or make money for foreign speculators—is discussed with a number of women farmers, all of whom believe that producing food, and maintaining the land for their children, is of paramount importance.

Pre-viewing discussion: Discuss the Peace River dilemma:
The Site-C Dam which is proposed for the Peace River will have a life-span of 70 years. (It won't go on forever because of silt suild-up.) During this time, it will produce electricity which will be used for industrialization and jobs. If it is built, however, it will flood 10,000 acres of prime farmland, farmland which needs little irrigation or fertilizer because of its location and fertility. What are some of the arguments for and against the Site-C Dam that you can think of?

Post-viewing discussion:
1) This film was obviously viewing the whole question from the point of view of farmers. What are some of the arguments that an industrialist or an engineer might put forward? Who will benefit most from the dam, if it's built? Who will pay?

2) What are some of the other reasons why Canadian farmland is disappearing?

3) One of the reasons Canadians aren't too concerned about the disappearance of farmland is that we have easy access to produce from other countries, like the U.S.A. and Mexico. Do you think it's important to be concerned with national food self-sufficiency in the age of the global village? Why or why not?

4) Does this film remind you of any Third World food issues?
- land versus development
- relocation of people displaced by dams or other developments
- vulnerability of the farmer to factors beyond his/her control: weather, agricultural inputs, prices, debt, high-priced middlemen
- urban bias — city industrialization more important than food production
- production for export considered more important than domestic production

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On Water:

Not Far from Bolgatanga
(NFB 106C 0182 530, 28 min.)

This film is a fascinating look at water-provision in northern Ghana, and some of the problems implicit in technology transfer. As well as looking at the importance of simple technology and community participation, the film is full of wonderful footage of Ghana and its people.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Open with a discussion of the situation presented in the film. Northern Ghana, in 1974, had an enormous problem of water-related disease. The Infant Mortality Rate was about 300 per thousand, many of the infant deaths due to diarrhoea caused by dirty water. CIDA (the Canadian International Development Agency) wanted to help. How could CIDA best deal with the problem? (Wells and pumps are sure to be suggested: challenge students to think about some of the problems that might be involved in building wells and pumps—break-downs, spare parts, foreign currency)

Ask students to watch the film for information on the mistakes made in the initial plan, and the necessary components of a water-provision system.

Post-viewing discussion:
Go over the points raised by the students. Make sure that they don't leave out village participation, maintenance, locally-available parts, education (particularly for the women who are the main carriers of water). The most successful projects in this area have generally been ones in which the villagers themselves have requested the well, and contribute labour. Why is this so?

Graphic by Louise Bourbonnais, CIDA

On Health:

Mozambique: Building a Future (NFB 106 C 0187 093; VHS 1213C 0187 093, 27 min.)

Rural dentistry is the focus of this beautifully-made film. When the Portuguese left Mozambique in 1975, they took all the dentists with them. Mozambique, where 80 per cent of the population is rural, is trying, despite war and hardship, to establish a rural dental system. We follow 7 young Mozambiquan dental technicians, first as they travel to Prince Albert, Saskatchewan to take a course in rural dentistry, then as they brave the cold of the Canadian Arctic, to do their practicum among Inuit people, and then back to war-torn, hungry Mozambique, where they make a modest start on establishing rural dental services. The film raises some interesting parallels; in what ways are the rural communities of Canada's north like the rural communities of Africa? What form of health service is appropriate for these communities?

Pre-viewing question:
Suppose you were in the position of the Minister of Health, Mozambique. At independence, you were left without a single dentist. 80 per cent of your people are scattered in the countryside. Your country is poor, and ravaged by war. What type of dental services would be appropriate for your country? How would dental care tie in with the health system?

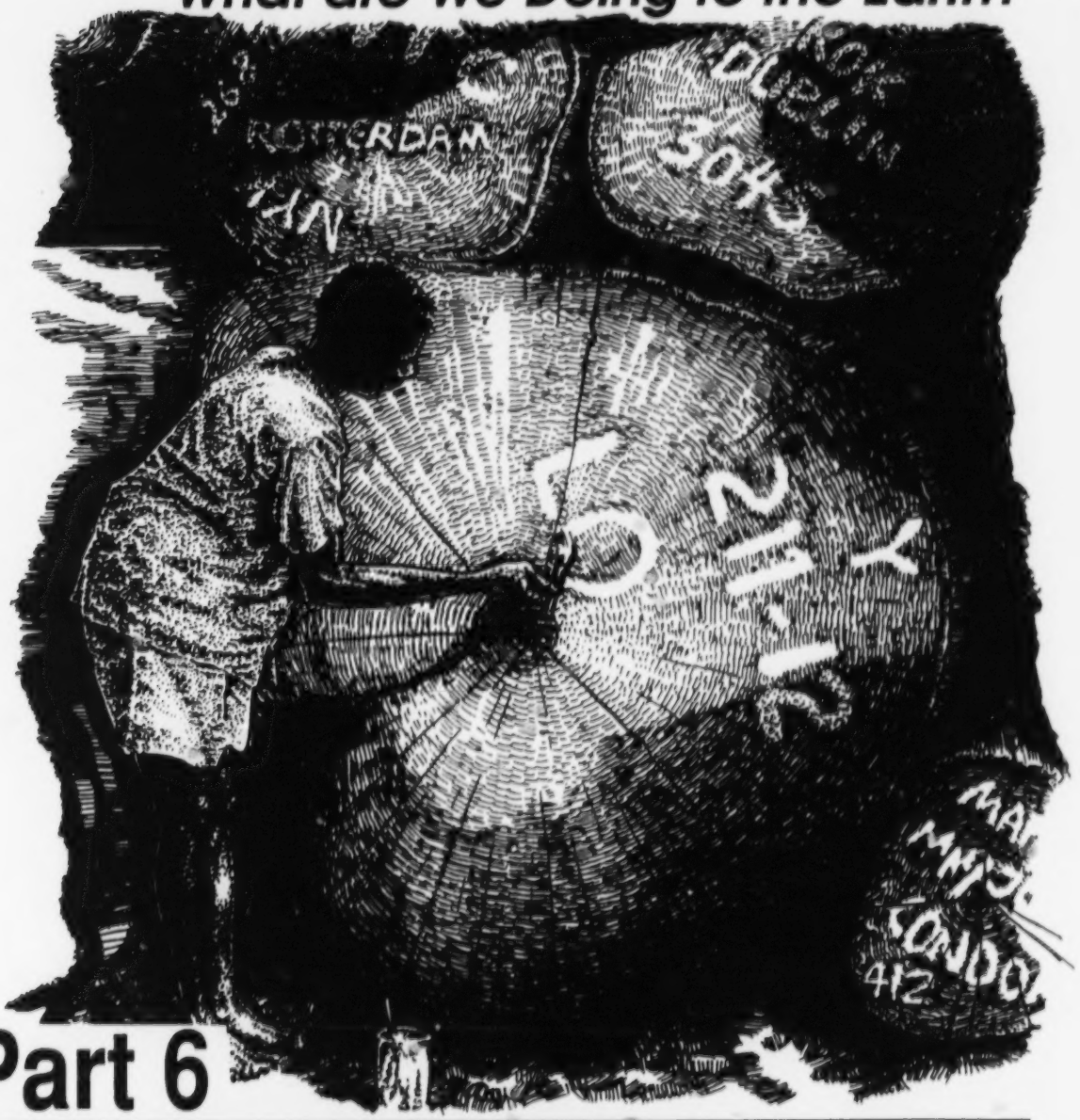
Other Audio-Visual Resources

Two videos on women and famine in Africa which have been highly recommended by teachers who have used them are **WITH THESE HANDS** (33 min.) and **MAN-MADE FAMINE** (52 min.). These videos are available for purchase through the New Internationalist (see address in Bibliography), or can be rented through several Canadian outlets. Contact your nearest Learner Centre for rental information. (See Part 10, pages 12-13 for Learner Centre information.)

Also highly recommended is the 4-part British series **THE POLITICS OF FOOD** (See *The Hunger Machine*, the book based on this series, in Bibliography). In four 52 min. videos, this series covers the human influences in Sudan (Vol. 1); the U.S. (Vol. 2); Brazil (Vol. 3) and Bangladesh and India (Vol. 4) which have led to problems in food production and distribution. Again, check with your nearest Learner Centre to find out where these can be rented in your area.

Graphic by Louise Bourbonnais, CIDA, (*Images* , 1988)

What are We Doing to the Earth?



Part 6

ENVIRONMENT

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contents

Part 6: Environment

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Environment 1

Desertification and Deforestation:
- **Overview of the Problem** 2-3
- **African Traditional Agriculture** 4
- **The Pressures on Trees** 4
- **Projects that Haven't Worked** 5-6
- **So, What Does Work?** 7-9
- **The Role of Poverty** 9

The World-Wide Scenario:
- **Rainforest Disappearance** 10-11
- **The Canadian Scene** 11

The First World's Effect on Third World Environment:
- **Canada's Aid Policy** 12
- **Dumping Toxic Waste, Pesticides, & DDT** 12
- **The Greenhouse Effect** 13-14
- **The Ozone Layer** 14

Unsound Development & Sustainable Development 15

Some Ideas for Positive Change 16

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 16-18

TEACHER NOTES 19

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 19-20

ENVIRONMENT

"The planet is being bludgeoned by the deadliest predator ever known in the history of life. That predator is ourselves."
(David Suzuki)

"Do not borrow off the earth, for the earth will require its own back with interest."
(Swahili Proverb)

Our planet at risk

Our generation is the first in time that will determine whether Earth will remain habitable.

Here are some reasons why:

❑ An estimated 26 million tons of topsoil are washed away or blown off cropland around the world each year.

❑ Over the past century, the nutrient content of prairie soil in Canada has diminished by 50 per cent because of farming practices. Without effective countermeasures, the same halving is likely in the next century.

❑ Each year, 6 million hectares of productive dryland turns into desert. Left unchecked, this would be an area roughly as large as Saudi Arabia in 30 years.

❑ More than 11 million hectares of forests are destroyed each year, killing thousands of plant and animal species, and much of it becomes poor land unable to support farmers who settle it.

❑ Acid rain has badly damaged one-fifth of Europe's forests, and killed life in up to 14,000 lakes in Ontario, Quebec and the Maritimes.

❑ The "greenhouse effect" caused by the burning of fossil fuels is warming the climate and in 30 years threatens to lead to a shift in global agricultural areas and raise sea levels to flood coastal cities.

❑ Chlorofluorocarbons and other man-made chemicals are destroying ozone that absorbs ultraviolet rays from the sun in the upper atmosphere. This can cause widespread skin cancer and eye problems.

So what is to be done?

The U.N.'s World Commission on Environment and Development has served notice that the time has come for a marriage of economy and ecology to create sustainable global development.

But is that possible? Is it just pie in the sky as the wealth of nations is invested in weaponry and war? Is the ever widening gap between rich and poor too wide to bridge? And as the planet is increasingly plundered and poisoned, will it be able to sustain a growth in the next century of between 8 and 14 billion people? . . . .

(***The Toronto Star***, April 4, 1988.
Reprinted by permission of the Toronto Star Syndicate.)

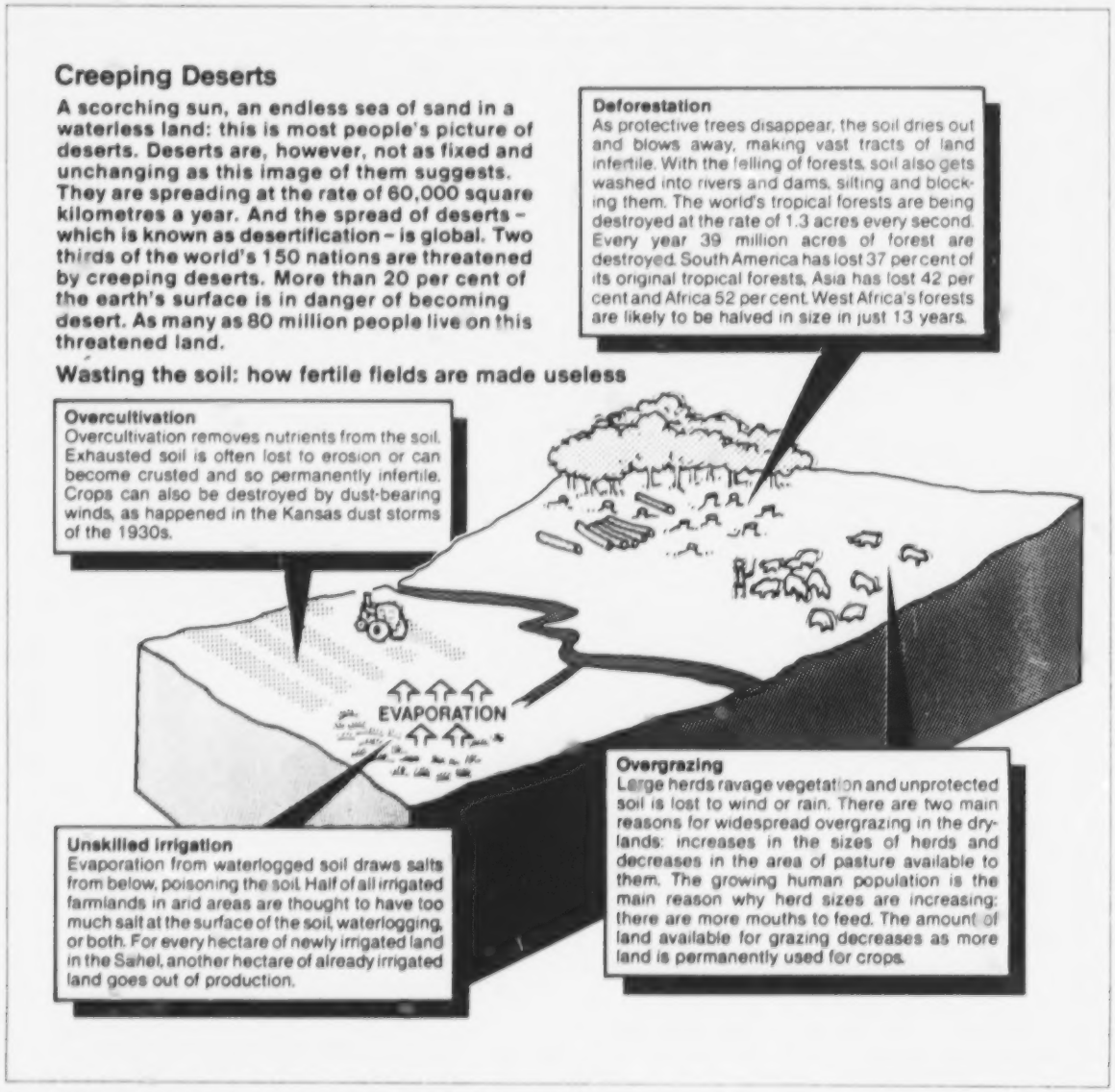
"Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."
(The Brundtland Report: ***Our Common Future***)

"One wonders whether we are driven by a kind of death wish that challenges us to test the outer limits of our capacity to destroy everything we touch, including ourselves."
(Tom McMillan, Canadian Minister of Environment, at the United Nations. *Ottawa Citizen*, October 20, 1987)

Africa and Environment

Where does Africa fit into this gloomy picture? Africa is often pictured by the media as an environmental calamity. At an alarming rate, a sea of sand is enveloping her fields and forests. This is often portrayed as an inevitable result of a dry climate, an encroaching Sahara desert, and a fast-growing population. Let's look more closely at the causes of, and solutions to, environmental degradation in Africa.

Desertification and Deforestation


Creeping Deserts
A scorching sun, an endless sea of sand in a waterless land: this is most people's picture of deserts. Deserts are, however, not as fixed and unchanging as this image of them suggests. They are spreading at the rate of 60,000 square kilometres a year. And the spread of deserts – which is known as desertification – is global. Two thirds of the world's 150 nations are threatened by creeping deserts. More than 20 per cent of the earth's surface is in danger of becoming desert. As many as 80 million people live on this threatened land.
Deforestation
As protective trees disappear, the soil dries out and blows away, making vast tracts of land infertile. With the felling of forests, soil also gets washed into rivers and dams, silting and blocking them. The world's tropical forests are being destroyed at the rate of 1.3 acres every second. Every year 39 million acres of forest are destroyed. South America has lost 37 per cent of its original tropical forests, Asia has lost 42 per cent and Africa 52 per cent. West Africa's forests are likely to be halved in size in just 13 years.
Wasting the soil: how fertile fields are made useless
Overcultivation
Overcultivation removes nutrients from the soil. Exhausted soil is often lost to erosion or can become crusted and so permanently infertile. Crops can also be destroyed by dust-bearing winds, as happened in the Kansas dust storms of the 1930s.
EVAPORATION
Overgrazing
Large herds ravage vegetation and unprotected soil is lost to wind or rain. There are two main reasons for widespread overgrazing in the drylands: increases in the sizes of herds and decreases in the area of pasture available to them. The growing human population is the main reason why herd sizes are increasing: there are more mouths to feed. The amount of land available for grazing decreases as more land is permanently used for crops.
Unskilled irrigation
Evaporation from waterlogged soil draws salts from below, poisoning the soil. Half of all irrigated farmlands in arid areas are thought to have too much salt at the surface of the soil, waterlogging, or both. For every hectare of newly irrigated land in the Sahel, another hectare of already irrigated land goes out of production.

New Internationalist Calendar 1988. Reprinted with permission.

In Africa—

Desertification

"The Sahara is not *moving* south; we are *pulling* it south."

(Niger forestry official, quoted in Timberlake, *Crisis in Africa*)

One can't examine the problem of desertification without examining groundcover. Groundcover can range from grass to trees; it's any vegetation that covers the soil. And in Africa, where soil is fragile, alternately parched by long periods of dry heat and inundated by fierce tropical rains, groundcover is very important. It is what keeps the soil there. For various reasons, which we'll examine later, much of Africa is losing groundcover.

This loss of groundcover means a parallel loss of topsoil. The result? Creation of deep gullies, of crusts that water cannot penetrate, of rock-hard layers of laterite that hand-tools or plant roots cannot pierce, of shifting sand dunes that swamp villages and fields. Desertification is self-propagating: as expanding areas become useless for crops or livestock, the pressure on the remaining fertile soil increases. Families migrate to another place and begin the process of deforestation, overcultivation and overgrazing anew.

The UN Environment Program estimates that 742 million hectares—more than a quarter of Africa—is in the process of becoming useless for cultivation, undergoing severe or moderate desertification. Half of the world's people most menaced by desertification live in the Sahel.

Deforestation

"In the tropics today, 10 trees are being cut for every one planted and. . . in Africa the ratio is 29 to one."

(Maurice Strong, quoted in *Development Forum*, May-June 1988)

Africa's tropical rainforest is disappearing at more than 1 million hectares each year. In 1900, Ivory Coast had 14.5 million hectares of closed forest. By 1980, it had 4 million hectares, and this was disappearing at a rate of 300,000 hectares annually. At this rate, Ivory Coast's forests will vanish by the mid-1990s.

Trees are disappearing not only from forests, but from open woodlands—stands of trees interspersed by grassland—which are also shrinking by about half of one percent each year.

Sounds disastrous!
How could Africans let this happen?

The main reasons for Africa's twin disasters of desertification and deforestation are these:

① **African traditional agriculture** (now facing pressures to intensify its production)

② **The Pressures on trees** (short-term profit, fuel needs, pressure for more agricultural land)

③ **Projects that haven't worked** (many of which have worsened the situation)

For more about each of these, turn the page.

① African Traditional Agriculture

Africans have difficult soil and a difficult climate to deal with. Africa's soils are among the least fertile in the world. Her climate fluctuates between long dry periods and cloudbursts of 100 to 150 mm of rainfall an hour (as much rain as Vancouver gets in an average month). Africa's climate has also made it impossible, in many areas, to raise livestock or to use animal labour in farming. (See box below.).

Africans have traditionally adapted to these difficulties by using a *shifting cultivation* form of agriculture. The farmer clears an area of bush or forest, and burns the debris. The burning reduces the acidity of the soil and destroys weed seeds, insects and plant diseases. The crops are then cultivated for one to three years, using up the nitrogen in the soil. When the field stops producing good yields, the farmer abandons it to the encroaching grasses and other wild plants, which restore its nitrogen, and moves on to clear yet another piece of bush. Shifting agriculture is essentially a no-input form of agriculture, relying on nature to restore the nutrients removed by crops. As long as nature is given enough time to act, it works well.

However, population pressure and other land pressures, such as pressure to produce export crops, have meant that there is not time to let land lie fallow for long enough periods to regenerate. Thus, land becomes exhausted. Farmers look for new lands to cultivate and end up with marginal land which is not suitable for cultivation and is easily eroded. Sometimes this land is grassland, sometimes the fragile African forest soil. When farmers try to cultivate fragile grassland, they also drive the nomadic pastoralists and their herds—the traditional occupants of the grasslands—to even more fragile land, and this land, too, becomes overgrazed and eroded. When farmers try to cultivate forest soil, they denude the soil of the cover which it needs to survive.

What Africa needs is an agricultural system that allows increased yields without robbing the soil of its nutrients. Other societies have gone through this process and have improved their yields through intensive irrigation, using animals to provide manure, or provision of chemical fertilizers. Because of Africa's scarce groundwater, her lack of livestock due to trypanosomiasis, and her poverty, none of these solutions seems very appropriate. However, Africa *is* beginning to develop methods which are cheap, effective, and distinctively African. (See pages 7 to 9.)

THE EFFECTS OF ONE LITTLE FLY

The tsetse fly is a slightly larger relative of the common housefly, a small, bristly, brownish fly with an unfortunate taste for blood. It inhabits 10 million square kilometres of Africa—almost four-fifths of the humid and sub-humid zones and half of the semi-arid area. Its major drawback is that it when it sucks the blood of livestock, it can transmit trypanosomiasis, an infection which is often fatal to cattle.

How might the absence of animals such as horses and oxen affect this large area of Africa?

* In terms of soil fertility? (think dung)
* Farm labour? (Who does the ploughing and hoeing?)
* Population? (Why might farm families want more children?)

② The Pressures on Trees:

Forests come under a dual pressure. Commercial forestry companies eye the profits to be made from the export of African hardwood, and they begin the destruction by building roads into the forest. These roads then bring in farmers, desperate for land.

As well as what we term **"deforestation"**—the process by which forests are destroyed—experts on Africa point to the erosion-causing effects of **"degradation"** of forests and woodland—the *thinning out* (as opposed to total *destruction*) of tree cover. The main causes of degradation are threefold:

- **fires** set by farmers clearing land and by pastoralists as a means of getting dry grasses to sprout a few new green shoots;
- **overcutting** for fuelwood;
- **overgrazing** by expanding livestock herds. Goats are major culprits in eating foliage and seedlings.

The Results of Deforestation:

❑ **Erosion**: Remove the roots, which anchor the earth, the canopies which protect it from wind and torrential rains, and the leaves, which nourish it, and you have a recipe for erosion. Trees also increase the ability of rainwater to penetrate the soil, raising water tables and reducing destructive run-off. (It's no accident that the incidence of flooding is higher once desertification has taken place.)

❑ **Soil Temperature:** Take away the trees, and the soil heats up. Forest depletion in Ghana has resulted in an increase of 11 degrees C in soil temperature at a depth of 7.5 cm.

Deforestation also has world-wide implications (see page 10).

③ Projects That Haven't Worked

★ THE LAND:

Trampling it Down and Ploughing it Up

World's attempts to assist Africa 'doomed to failure'

By Grania Litwin
Times-Colonist staff

Mark and Delia Owens—who lived for seven years in the Kalahari Desert—say the western world's attempts to help Africa have been naive and doomed to failure.

"The way western countries have tried to help Africa defies logic. Much of the help was done with the best intentions, but it has led to environmental destruction and the collapse of wildlife populations.

"The World Bank, for instance, has had two disastrous cattle developments in Botswana that have actually reduced the populations of animals by blocking their natural migration patterns. International programs such as these have sucked water out of the aquifer, displaced people and resulted in serious overgrazing. . . ."

(Times-Colonist, October 18, 1988)

Who was consulted on this project?

Who ate the cattle? the wheat? (8 out of 10 Tanzanians eat maize)

Were people asked if they wanted to leave?

Who would benefit from this project? Who would pay?

The Hanang Project in Tanzania

In 1970, the Canadian government committed $7 million to a project to grow most of the wheat needed by Tanzania. By 1983, Canada had committed $44 million to this effort—a sum being matched by a Tanzanian government desperately short of foreign exchange. Using mechanised equipment purchased from Canada and run on expensive imported petrol [gas], 24,000 hectares were ploughed up on the Hanang Plains southwest of Arusha. This provided only about 250 skilled jobs for Tanzanians and recruited only 100 local men as casual labour at less than $1 a day. The Barbaig pastoralists who had used the land were squeezed onto poorer ranges, which their cattle rapidly overgrazed. . . .

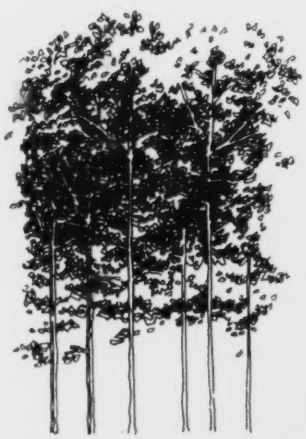
"Severe erosion threatens to turn the whole wheat-growing area into a dust bowl within a decade", wrote Derek Warren of Oxfam. Canadians admit water erosion is developing and that laying the fields out in big blocks was a mistake.

From AFRICA IN CRISIS by Lloyd Timberlake
(c) 1985, 1988 by Lloyd Timberlake
Published by Earthscan Publications Ltd, London

★ THE TREES:

Replacing Natural Bush with Planned Plantations

Attempts at reforestry in Africa have generally been underfunded and inappropriate. Often existing natural forest or bush has been cleared, and exotic species planted without careful consideration of their performance in local conditions. Village woodlots have also been tried, but often good cropland was taken over to plant the trees, and villagers reacted with hostility. Part of the problem with both the plantations and the woodlots was that local people were rarely consulted.



★ THE WATER:

Creating Wet Deserts

When rain comes in an all-or-nothing pattern, as it does in much of Africa, irrigation is a natural solution. Collect water when it's plentiful, hold onto it, and release it into fields when the weather is dry.

Sounds like a good, simple solution!

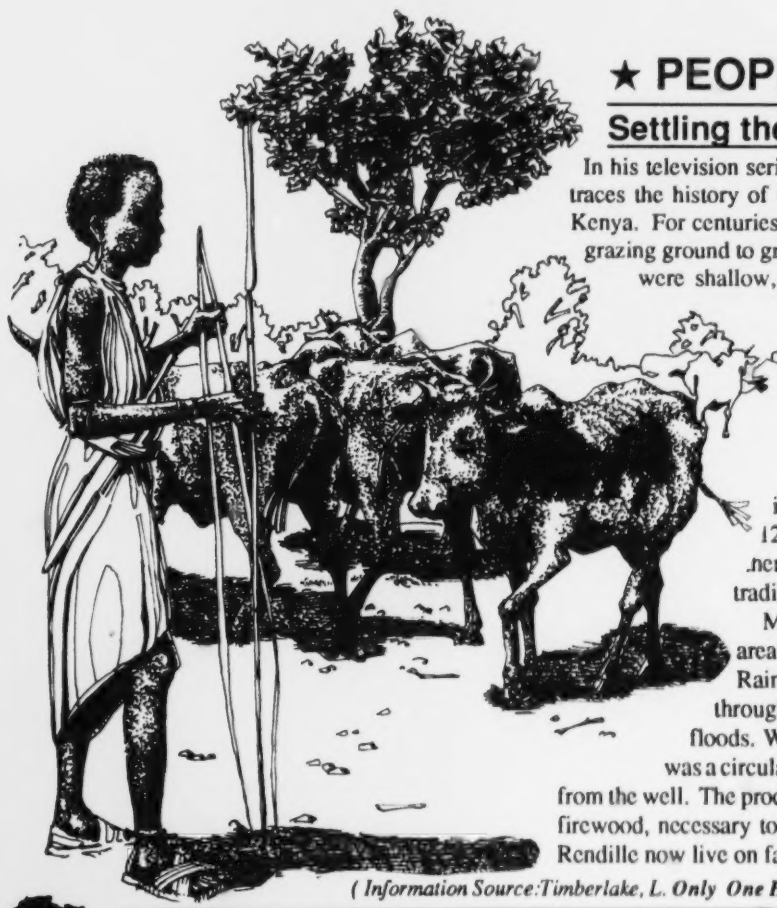
What Africa—along with other areas—has learned the hard way is that irrigation is not as simple as we first thought. Irrigation, when properly engineered, can bring enormous benefits. If it's not properly engineered, if good drainage systems are not established, **salinization** can reduce the land to desert. Salinization is what happens when surface water evaporates, leaving salt deposits in the upper soil layers. Unless the salt is washed away, it accumulates, eventually killing off all life. **Waterlogging** is another problem caused by faulty engineering: land becomes a "wet desert", too saturated to grow anything.

In 1979, Mali had about 17,000 hectares of irrigated land in need of rehabilitation, while Senegal had 5,000 hectares. Africa wasn't the only region to learn this hard lesson. Areas of China, Asia, Europe, and North and South America are also suffering the effects of bad irrigation systems. As well as having technical design problems, many large-scale irrigation projects have had people-design problems. (See the box to the right.)

The Rahad Irrigation Project, Eastern Sudan

"Covering an area about 25 kilometres wide and 160 kilometres long, the project cost a total of $400 million (US). The land required was taken over without compensation. The former owners became tenants, and outsiders were brought in, many of them nomads. Over the first two years of production, the yield of cotton, the main crop, dropped by more than a half. Those who paid the price of failure were the farmers. A USAID evaluation concluded that tenants with no source of income other than the official activities were worse off with the project than they had been before."

(Paul Harrison. The Greening of Africa. London: Paladin, 1987. Copyright IIED.)



★ PEOPLE & ANIMALS:

Settling the Nomads

In his television series "Only One Earth", Lloyd Timberlake traces the history of the nomadic Rendille people of northern Kenya. For centuries the Rendille lived by herding cattle from grazing ground to grazing ground. Their only sources of water were shallow, hand-dug wells, which often collapsed. Their traditional diet was milk and blood drained from the neck of a living camel. It was a hard life, but an independent one.

In the early 1970s, Father Redento, an Italian missionary, attempted to improve the lives of the Rendille. He built 12 deep, permanent wells. He introduced them to grain, and the art of cooking it. (Their traditional diet hadn't required cooking.)

Most of the Rendille tribe settled down. The area around the settlement became overgrazed. Rainfall, instead of trickling underground through root systems, ran off the soil in the form of floods. Wind took away exposed topsoil. Soon there was a circular desert with a radius of 20 miles, radiating from the well. The process was hastened by the cutting of trees for firewood, necessary to cook the new diet of grain. Most of the Rendille now live on famine relief handouts.

(Information Source: Timberlake, L. Only One Earth. London: BBC Books / Earthscan, 1987)

SO WHAT *DOES* WORK?

*In discovering what **does** work, Africa is finding that there are two elements to successful projects: **technology** and **people**. The technology has to be simple, cheap, and effective, and fit in with the needs and values of local people. The people have to understand what benefits they will derive from environmental conservation measures, and these benefits must be displayed in the short-term. Peasant farmers can't afford to sacrifice land and labour for something which will benefit them only in the distant future. Once they see positive results, Africans have proved that they can commit enormous energy to conserving their soil and trees.*

☆ THE LAND:

Planting Trees; Stopping Sands

Kenya: The Green Belt Movement

In 1977, the National Council of Women of Kenya set up the Green Belt Movement, which helps communities to set up green belts of at least 1,000 trees on open spaces, in school grounds, along roads. There are now more than 1,000 green belts, and as many as 20,000 "mini-green belts" on farmers' fields, along with 54 community tree nurseries run by women's groups.

This is only one part of a national strategy which includes voluntary organizations and government support. In 1980, Kenya's President, Daniel Arap Moi, issued a directive that every district commissioner and every chief should have a nursery. From 1983, every secondary school was required to have a tree nursery and a woodlot or agroforestry plot. In Kenya, tree planting is a national crusade.

Kenya also has a strong soil conservation movement, which involves the training of 1700 technical assistants each year, and the training of local administrators in simple conservation methods: terraces, planting of ground-cover, small dams to check run-off, planting lines of trees and grasses. The techniques were worked out by the Swedish Development Authority in conjunction with peasant farmers, are simple and cheap, and use only hand tools. The results of the conservation techniques are so dramatic in terms of immediate crop yields that they are adopted with enthusiasm. Chief among the "do-it-yourself" conservationists are women. Many of the members of women's organizations set aside a number of hours a week to work together on conservation projects which will benefit them all..

*(Information Source: Paul Harrison.**The Greening of Africa**. London, Paladin, 1987.)*

Avoiding the Plough

A new technique with a big future in Africa is **minimum tillage**, or no-plough farming. Research at the International Institute for Tropical Agriculture in Nigeria has shown that ploughing can *speed up* erosion in most of the wetter parts of Africa.

With minimum tillage, the weeds and stubble of previous crops are killed with a herbicide spray. This creates a thick mat of vegetation and roots which holds the soil in place and conserves moisture. The seeds of the next crop are then planted directly into holes in the mat.

Minimum tillage reduces erosion by 99 per cent. Crop yields are 100-200 per cent higher than on ploughed plots.

*(**South**, December 1987. Reprinted with permission.)*

☆ THE TREES:

Managing, Planting and Saving Them

Regenerating Natural Forest

The Guesselbodi Forest in Niger was once a rich, dense woodland, filled with wildlife and fuel for the villagers. As a result of drought, clearance by farmers, and grazing by animals, by 1983 the Guesselbodi forest was almost dead. Gullies formed; rainwater washed the topsoil away. Nearby villagers, even if they had known the techniques to reclaim the forests, were powerless to do much, because the state of Niger owned the forest.

In 1981 a USAID-financed Forestry and Land Use Planning (FLUP) project undertook to ***manage*** the natural forest, rather than to use the usual ***bulldozing/ replanting*** techniques. Hiring local villagers, the FLUP project used water-harvesting and soil-catchment methods, plus a generous use of mulch (small twigs and branches) to protect and nourish the soil. Guards were posted for marauding grazers, and fines imposed for the owners of stray grazing animals.

The forest is now in good health. Trees are being harvested at a renewable rate, and cooperatives of villagers, who will manage sections of forest and share the benefits, are being formed.

(Information Source: Paul Harrison. The Greening of Africa London, Paladin, 1987)

Locating the Forests in the Farms:

AGROFORESTRY

Agroforestry is arguably the single most important discipline for the future of sustainable development in Africa. It should be given the priority and resources that it deserves both nationally and internationally.

(Paul Harrison, ***The Greening of Africa***, 1987)

WHAT IS AGROFORESTRY?

In the past, forestry has been considered separate from agriculture; in fact, foresters and peasants were often hostile, competing for land. Agroforestry—tree-planting on and around farms—recognizes the benefits of tree planting for soil and water conservation, and the improvement of crop yields. After studying the traditional methods of farmers in south-eastern Nigeria—where food and fodder-producing trees are integrated with agriculture—scientists at the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture in Nigeria designed a system of agroforestry known as "**alley cropping**", where rows of fast-growing, multi-purpose trees are planted four to eight metres apart, with crops between. The trees are pruned before each rainy season, so that they don't shade growing crops. The prunings provide stakes, firewood, and foliage to be spread on the soil as a mulch, and leaves for livestock food. The initial research on this new system has shown a profit increase of 60 to 100 per cent per hectare.

☆ THE WATER: Making the Most of It

The OXFAM Soil Conservation Project in Burkina Faso

In the mid-70s, vast areas of the northern half of Burkina Faso were turning to desert. The partially-eroded soil was crusting, preventing any further water from entering the soil.

Oxfam project director Peter Wright began working together with peasants to look for ways of improving food production using a traditional method—lines of stone—to stop the water run-off. The problem was that the lines didn't follow the contours accurately enough, so that water piled up at low points and poured through. Wright developed a level, made with two stakes and a length of hosepipe, costing approximately $6 to make, and Oxfam held training sessions for the peasants to teach them how to use the level to build the lines along the contour of the hills. The results were dramatic: a 40 per cent increase in millet yields. Farmers showed their neighbours the new technique. Now the stone lines are almost everywhere in northern Burkina Faso.

(Information Source: Paul Harrison, The Greening of Africa, 1987)

Cutting the Demand:

Fuel-efficient Stoves

Almost half the world's felled wood is used as fuel, and over 80 per cent of it by developing countries. The search for fuel-wood adds to the already enormous workload of Africa's women. In the Rift Valley of Kenya, Masai women spend up to four hours a day scouring the grassy plains for fuel. Their search for fuel, consuming 400 to 500 calories a day, is a major factor in malnutrition, as well as in farm labour shortage. In the cities, poor African families spend 20 to 30 per cent of their incomes on wood or charcoal. Many African cities are surrounded by spreading circles of deforestation. As well as growing trees, Africa needs to reduce its fuel use.

The traditional African stove consists of three stones, which support a pot over a flame. Attempts to produce stoves which would increase efficiency have been many. However, they have not been generally accepted. Often they are expensive, or are designed without consideration for traditional pots or cooking patterns. A recent exception is Burkina Faso's **improved ring stove**. It costs almost nothing to make, since it is built of clay, straw, dung and water, and saves 35 to 70 per cent on fuel. In 1984, the Burkina government trained 1,200 women to make the stoves. These women trained other women, who will train their neighbours. By April 1986, 83,500 improved stoves were in use.

Illustration: Tribune

☆ THE PEOPLE and ANIMALS:

Keeping Them on the Move

Nomadic pastoralists have been blamed for much of Africa's desertification. Recent studies, however, show that African pastoralists are masters of their trade. In southern Ethiopia the Borana tribe manages to extract four times as much protein per hectare, and six times as much food energy, as commercial ranches in Australia's Northern Territory. Studies also show that the grazing lands are capable of supporting the herds; the problem is one of distribution. By increasing the number of wells so that the herds are more dispersed, the pastoralists can keep their independence and the grassland its sustainability. In some areas, herding of camels and goats, which survive drought better, is being encouraged.

Development officials realize that the nomadic life is a hard one, and that, if the nomads are to be encouraged to continue their nomadic life, the life must be made a little easier. In Kenya, UNESCO workers are trying to establish "mobile shops" on the backs of the camels, so that consumer goods like sugar, tea, flour, tobacco and radio batteries can be taken out to the camps. Increasing economic security is important; African pastoralists have no insurance schemes like North American ranchers do, to protect them against huge losses. In one approach presently underway in Mali, surplus livestock are bought during times of drought and processed cheaply into dried meat. The pastoralist then has money to replenish his herd when wetter weather comes.

??????

What are the similarities in these successful schemes on pages 7 - 9? (Land, Trees, Water and People)

(The scale of projects; the expense; the pay-off; the motivation)

An Important Reminder:

When doling out the blame for desertification and deforestation, let's not forget that familiar figure,

POVERTY.

"Poverty undermines security. It compromises equality. It denies hope. And in less-developed regions of the world, poverty means the destruction of rain forests in Brazil and the denuding of forests in areas bordering on the Sahara desert."
(Prime Minister Brian Mulroney, speech to the UN General Assembly, September, 1988)

"Those who are poor and hungry will often destroy their immediate environment in order to survive: They will cut down forests; their livestock will overgraze grasslands; they will overuse marginal land; and in growing numbers they will crowd into congested cities. The cumulative effect of these changes is so far-reaching as to make poverty itself a major global scourge."
(Brundtland, *Our Common Future*, 1987)

"The stone wall of inopportunity facing the poorest billion people ensures continuing environmental degradation in large parts of the world."
(Eric Eckholm, U.S. Environmentalist, quoted in Timberlake, *Only One Earth*)

It is therefore important to realize that successful projects are ones which will take into account the poverty of many of Africa's people, and devise solutions which really benefit the poor.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

THE WORLD-WIDE SCENARIO

Africa's environmental problems are our problems, too!
(How deforestation in the South affects people in the North)

Rainforests' demise threatens to kill off most species of life

BY MICHAEL KEATING
The Globe and Mail

ACCORDING TO A NUMBER of environment experts, the world is undergoing the largest extermination of animal and plant species in the four-billion-year history of life on earth. And with their departure are going some of mankind's best hopes for a better, healthier life. . . .

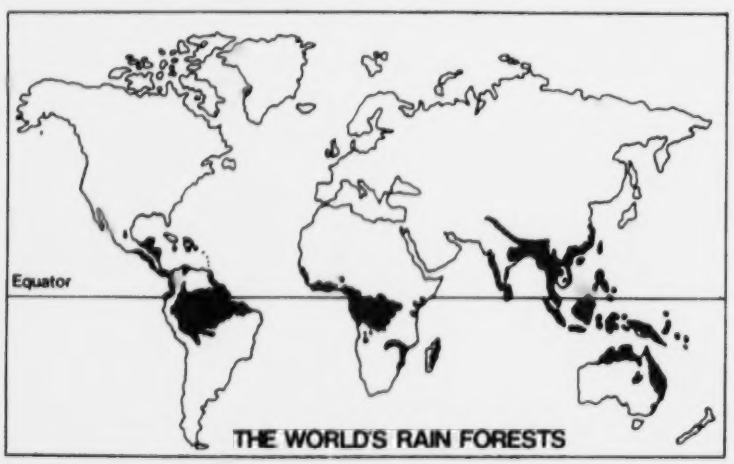
Twenty-five per cent of pharmaceuticals are based on tropical plants. Eli Lilly & Co., along with researchers from the University of Western Ontario, discovered in the rosy periwinkle, from the jungles of Madagascar, two anti-cancer drugs that increased children's chances of surviving leukemia. However, 95 per cent of Madagascar's rain forest has been eliminated, taking with it related plants that could have led to other potent drugs.

Many foods came originally from wild, tropical areas and rely on periodic injections of genetic material from natural plants.

In a part of Mexico slated for clearing, scientists found a species of wild corn that is resistant to seven diseases. By breeding the characteristic into domestic corn, growers can prevent billions of dollars a year in crop losses. . . .

Deforestation is also destroying what Noel Brown of the United Nations Environment Program calls "the lungs of the world." Plants soak up carbon dioxide and release life-giving oxygen. As forests are burned the cycle is reversed, adding 2 billion tonnes of carbon a year to the atmosphere and speeding the formation of an air pollution blanket that will raise global temperatures and disrupt the climate. . . .

Deforestation will have to be dealt with during this generation, scientists warn, because species extinction is happening at such a rate that by the next generation it will be too late. *(Globe and Mail, January 3, 1987)*



THE WORLD'S RAIN FORESTS

In Canada . . . four varieties of wheat produce 75 per cent of the crop grown on the Prairies and more than half of it comes from a single variety: the Neepawa, whose breeding was made possible through tropical forest germplasm.

*(CIDA, **Development**, June 1986)*

WHO PAYS?

Third World leaders point out that the First World has derived most of the benefit from the rainforest without any of the inconvenience of having to pay the costs of maintaining it.

"How much land for the hungry of today? And how much for genetic resources to be preserved for tomorrow? In the past, we have neither received a fair share of the benefits, nor have we received a fair share of assistance—other than inexpensive advice and even more inexpensive criticism—in the efforts to save the common global natural heritage. Unless such responsibilities are equally shared, all our good intentions will only lead to global environmental destruction."

(Indonesian Vice President Adam Malik,
quoted in Timberlake, *Africa in Crisis*. London, Earthscan, 1985)

What is more, the North is part of the problem. . .

All of us add to the onslaught against trees. Most tropical wood is exported to Japan, Western Europe and the U.S. These countries use endless amounts of hardwood for doors, window frames, coffins and knick-knacks, whilst in Japan it is even used for packaging. The developed world's imports of hardwood have swelled 16 times since 1950 whilst the amount of wood used by tropical regions has increased just thrice.

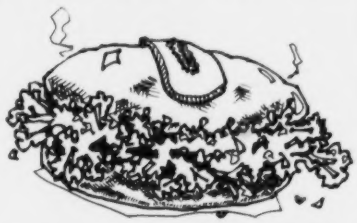
(Shaw, S., "Tree of Life: Stop the Chainsaw Massacre", New Internationalist, June 1988)

Hamburger desolation

[Some Northern hamburger chains use beef raised in what used to be Third World tropical rainforest]

Recently an approximate cost of hamburgers in terms of tropical rainforest has been estimated. A hectare of well-developed rainforest sustains about 800,000 kilos of plants and animals. Total meat production on the same hectare levelled and used for pasture will be 200 kilos a year—that is, some 1,600 hamburgers. In other words, the cost for the first year is something like half a tonne of rainforest per hamburger. The price of that meal-in-a-bun is anything up to nine square metres of irreplaceable natural wealth—the richness and diversity of the rainforest which may never be recreated when the grazing lands are in due course abandoned.

(New Internationalist, July 1987, From World Food Association Bulletin, Nos 3 and 4, 1986)



We're sure lucky we don't have problems of deforestation and desertification in Canada!

Figures show it's logging itself to death

The best figures obtainable show that long-run sustained yield in B.C. forestry allows an annual cut of some 55 million cubic metres of timber, says the Sierra Club of Western Canada.

But that figure, according to B.C. Forest Service statistics for volume of timber billed, has been exceeded a dozen times since 1970 in those years cited, mostly since 1975. In 1987 it stood at 89 million cubic metres.

"Consider that volume of timber billed is not the same as volume of timber cut," the club said in an interpretation released this week.

"Timber that gets cut but is left lying on the ground doesn't show up in this statistic.

"So even if the waste is only 10 per cent, that puts the annual cut around 100 million cubic metres.

"That means that the current rate of logging in B.C. is roughly twice what the forest can sustain over the long run. You could even say the forest industry is logging itself to death." *(Times-Colonist, September 22, 1988)*

Nass Valley, B.C.
1983-1985
Westar Timber cut all the wood in the valley bottom but left 80 per cent on the ground to rot because it was exporting only the best logs.

(Kelly, R., "The biggest give-away", ***New Internationalist***, June 1988)

Soil degradation exists in all countries of the world, rich and poor alike. It is estimated that Canadian farmers are losing over $1 billion per year in farm revenues as a result of poor land practices, which were recently described by a Senate Committee as creating the most serious agricultural crisis in Canada's history.

*(CIDA, **Development**, June 1986)*

How is the First World helping with environmental problems of the Third World?

Positive:

Canada's Aid Policy is Changing

Environment: A New Policy

"Under CIDA's new policy, the environment is a priority for CIDA's bilateral program and a factor that must be considered in every project. . . .

Impact assessments will be carried out on all proposed projects that are likely to involve environmental risks. . . .

Projects to improve the environment and restore natural resources will be given high priority. . . ."

CIDA, Sharing Our Future, 1987

Negative:

Dumping on the Third World

WASTE

Developed countries use Africa as toxic waste dump

By Nicholas Kotch
Reuter

LAGOS—Poisonous chemicals from Italy ooze out of leaky drums in a Nigerian delta village. Municipal ash from the United States kills trees on a lush tropical island in Guinea.

Specialist companies in the developed world are exploiting Africa's weakness to unload radioactive and toxic waste on the world's poorest continent.

The absence of international laws, coupled with sheer greed, is contributing to a growing problem described by concerned Africans as "toxic terrorism."...

"This act of dumping of toxic and radioactive wastes on our shores clearly violates international laws and conventions," Nigerian Information Minister Tony Momoh said.

But he may be wrong.

"As of now, nothing exists in the way of binding international law," United Nations expert Jan Huismans said.... *Times-Colonist, June 20, 1988*

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PESTICIDES

Poisonings: "In 1981, OXFAM stated that there were 750,000 cases of accidental pesticide poisoning a year. Third World countries, accounting for less than 15% of world pesticide consumption suffered 50% of poisonings and 75% of the resulting deaths."

DDT: "Although DDT was prohibited for use within the US as long ago as 1972, the US still manufactures over 18 million kg a year for export, largely to the Third World. Ignorance in the Third World of the dangers involved with the use of pesticides such as DDT is a major problem. A sample of rural workers in Central America shows that they have 11 times as much DDT in their bodies as the average American citizen."

(Myers, ed., Gaia: An Atlas of Planet Management . N.Y.: Anchor Books, 1984, p. 123)

CAM
MARS ASTRONOMY SOCIETY
"HIGH LEVELS OF CARBON MONOXIDE, DIOXIN, PCBs, RADON GAS, MERCURY, LEAD, DEPLETED OZONE AND ACID RAIN... LIFE ON EARTH??.. DON'T PULL MY LEGS!"

Permission Cam Cardow, Regina Leader Post

SPREADING THE EFFECTS OF FIRST WORLD CONSUMPTION—

The Greenhouse Effect:

"Carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere have increased by about 30% from 1850 to 1980—and are projected to leap a further 75% by 2060. Carbon dioxide plays a key role in determining the Earth's climate. It lets through virtually all the incoming short-wave solar energy, but traps and retains much of the long-wave energy that the Earth radiates out towards space. The net effect is to keep the Earth's surface at a higher temperature than if carbon dioxide were not present in the atmosphere. This is popularly known as 'the greenhouse effect'."

(Myers, ed., ***Gaia: An Atlas of Planet Management*** N.Y., Anchor Books, 1984, p. 116)

Greenhouse feedback effect threatens a doomsday scenario

from Jeremy Rifkin, in Washington

The year is 2035. In New York, palm trees line the Hudson River from 125th Street to the Midtown exit.

Phoenix is in its third week of temperatures over 50 degrees C, and the project to cover the city with air-conditioned domes is still unfinished.

The Netherlands is under water, Bangladesh has ceased to exist. Torrential rains and rising seas there have killed several million people and forced the remaining population into makeshift refugee camps on higher ground in Pakistan and India.

In central Europe and the American Midwest, decades of drought have turned once fertile agricultural lands into parched deserts. Tens of millions of people continue to trek northward—the greatest mass migration in recorded history. Canada's population swells from 20 million to 200 million in less than four decades. Forest fires rage out of control over millions of acres in the Pacific Northwest, while the Mississippi River, closed to commercial traffic earlier in the century, becomes a vast earthen plain, allowing people to cross over by foot for the first time in human memory.

Welcome to the Greenhouse World of the 21st century. It is not science fiction; it is based on current projections by climatologists and environmental scientists. Many now believe that civilization may have doomed itself to a warming trend that could fundamentally affect the life process from microbes to man. In scarcely more than 100 years, we have polluted the atmosphere with gases that prevent the Earth from reflecting solar heat back into space and trap it in the lower air.

Some researchers predict that if the current industrial growth and fossil-fuel use continue unabated, it could subject the globe to a temperature increase of between two and eight degrees C in half a century. By comparison, a rise of five degrees would exceed any temperature change on the planet during the last several million years, according to Irving Mintzer of the World Resources Institute.

Worse yet, global warming could lead to thermal expansion of seawater and the melting of land ice in the polar regions. Climatologists now predict a rise of up to 1.5 metres in sea level by the year 2050. That could devastate coastal areas where half of the world's population resides, resulting in massive loss of property....

There is no quick technological fix for the greenhouse phenomenon. The only solution is to eliminate the sources of the problem. At both the Bellagio Conference [a 1987 conference in Italy] and the Changing Atmosphere Conference two months ago in Toronto, scientists from around the world agreed that the first order of business is a radical reduction in the burning of fossil fuels—coal, oil and, to a lesser extent, natural gas—that produce carbon-dioxide emissions.

The goal is a 50-per cent or greater reduction in fossil-fuel use by the year 2015. To reach that goal, governments must begin immediately to devise programs to increase end-use efficiency and replace fossil fuels with alternative energy sources, including solar radiation, hydropower, geothermal and wind power. . . .

Slashing fossil fuel use by half in less than three decades will require an enormous shift in economic, military and political priorities—a shift so extraordinary in scope that it would require a worldwide mobilization effort on a scale never before experienced. The task becomes even more difficult in light of the fact that many economists are currently forecasting a doubling of carbon-dioxide emissions in coming decades to keep pace with economic development projections.

Nitrous oxide emission from chemical fertilizers used in green-revolution agriculture around the world is another major cause of greenhouse warming. New research programs to promote regenerative, sustainable agricultural alternatives to chemical fertilizers need to be funded.

(continued)

The only effective means of absorbing carbon-dioxide is through reforestation. At the present time, however, the worldwide rate of deforestation is 10 times the rate of reforestation. According to the World Resources Institute, the deforestation rate is approximately 10 million hectares a year. Much of it is taking place in Brazil, Indonesia and Zaire, which contain nearly half of the forests in the tropics. International agreements need to be negotiated that would provide subsidies or direct payments to poor countries to encourage reforestation.

The developed nations also need to pursue a vigorous reforestation program within their own borders to help push back the global warming trend.

But perhaps no need is so urgent as public awareness. In the concluding statement issued at the Changing Atmosphere Conference in Toronto, government leaders and scientists from 48 countries warned the world of the dangers that lie just ahead with the continued global warming brought on by the greenhouse effect: "Humanity is conducting an uncontrolled, globally pervasive experiment whose ultimate consequences could be second only to a global nuclear war."

Washington Post ,October 1988.

Jeremy Rifkin is president of the Foundation on Economic Trends, Washington, D.C. Reprinted with permission.

WORLD CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS: The Top Nine Polluters:

COUNTRY	CO_2 EMISSION per Year (millions of tonnes)
U.S.	1100
U.S.S.R.	901
China	410
Japan	227
W. Germany	181
Britain	141
Poland	112
France	111
Canada	102

Cars are responsible for about half of Canada's carbon dioxide output. It takes the average North American car one year to produce its own weight in carbon.

Information Source: Vancouver Sun, "The Big Heat", August 20, 1988)

The Ozone Layer

Ozone is a form of oxygen that exists throughout the atmosphere, with about 90 per cent located between 10-50 kilometres above the earth in a belt commonly know as the ozone layer. Exposure to high levels of ozone can be poisonous for plants and humans, yet nothing on earth can live without it. The ozone layer forms a protective shield that absorbs much of the sun's ultraviolet radiation which, if allowed to reach the earth, would cause skin cancer and threaten many terrestrial and aquatic life forms.

In 1974, evidence that the chlorine in the chlorfluorocarbons (CFCs) used in refrigeration, synthetic foam and aerosol sprays was destroying ozone in the atmosphere led the U.S., Canada, Norway and Sweden to ban most CFCs in aerosol sprays. However, CFCs are still widely used in solvents and other industrial applications.

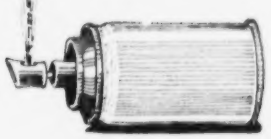
(CIDA, Development June 1986)

TORONTO—Canada should ban the sale and use of major ozone-depleting chemicals where substitutes are readily available, says the environmental group Friends of the Earth.

(Times-Colonist, September 16, 1988)

WASHINGTON—Ozone depletion by chlorofluorocarbon compounds could be even worse than previously thought, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency said Monday in urging a stepped-up attack on use of the compounds worldwide.

(Times-Colonist, September 27, 1988)



Ulltraviolet radiation is strongest near the equator. Thus, the effects of ozone depletion are expected to be worst in the tropics, in countries that have contributed not at all to its causation.

Although Mexico was the first country to ratify the recent ozone treaty, and China and other developing countries have also expressed interest, there are some developing countries which resent the First World role in the ozone situation. Representatives of the Indian government have implied that since the developed countries caused the problem, they are the ones that should solve it.

(information from J. Mathews, "Nations must move faster to save the environment," Times-Colonist, June 9, 1988)

Sure sounds pretty hopeless!

But is it?

Here are the Canadian International Development Agency's descriptions of two possible scenarios of the year 2000, one based on a system of unsound development, and the other based on sustainable development.

Unsound Development

Fast-growing city spreads over good farmland...but demands more and more food and fuel...so trees vanish in a widening circle. Farmers cultivate poor land, soil is soon depleted, and erosion speeds up. Mechanized farming, often for export crops, drives small farmers off other prime land—some to the city, some to seek marginal land for subsistence farming. Growing rural population faces health risks: unclean water and bad sanitation multiply illness. To feed families between crops, small farmers must borrow, and often lose their land. As pressure grows, scrubland turns to desert, and people are forced up hillsides and mountains—where they cut trees and plow land, causing devastating erosion and downstream flooding. The region and its people deteriorate.

Sustainable Development

City, as centre of education and new ideas, takes initiatives to minimize the burden it puts on the environment, and leads the region in cutting illiteracy, disease, infant and population growth. Land use is improved by policies to encourage small farmers—including credit, extension training and cooperatives. Agroforestry protects lands, boosts low incomes, and meets energy demand—which is moderated by the spread of improved stoves and solar projects. Bio-gas✲ units in villages and on farms cook meals while also improving sanitation and cutting pollution. Wells are drilled. Literacy, health, birth rate and income all improve, largely through growing involvement of rural and urban women. Farmers on vulnerable land are enabled to conserve the environment. The region and its people move ahead. *(CIDA, Sharing our Future, 1987)*

These development models were drawn up with the developing world in mind. However, there may be things which Canadians could learn from the contrasts of these two models. What steps would we need to take in Canada to:

- **stop the spread of cities into good farmland?**
- **encourage small farmers practising environmentally sound practices?**
- **encourage sustainable forestry and renewable energy?**
- **handle our sanitation problems?**
- **cut down on waste?**

(✲ Bio-gas plants, used in 46 developing countries, involve the fermentation of animal dung, human excreta, or crop residues in an airtight container to yield a methane-rich gas which can be used as fuel. The residue can be used as a fertilizer.)

some ideas for positive change:

"The process of economic development must be more soundly based upon the realities of the stock of capital that sustains it. This is rarely done in either developed or developing countries. For example, income from forestry operations is conventionally measured in terms of the value of the timber and other products extracted, minus the cost of extraction. The costs of re-generating the forest are not taken into account, unless money is actually spent on such work. Thus figuring profits from logging rarely take full account of the losses in future revenue incurred through degradation of the forest. Similar incomplete accounting occurs in the exploitation of other natural resources, especially in the case of resources that are not capitalised in enterprise or national accounts: air, water, and soil. In all countries, rich or poor, economic development must take full account in its measurements of growth of the improvement or deterioration in the stock of natural resources."

(Brundtland,Our Common Future)

(Can you imagine how much a gallon of leaded gasoline would cost if we had to pay for the environmental cost?)

"Whenever a resource is undervalued and under-priced, people waste it." — (Tom McMillan, Canadian Minister of Environment, quoted in *The Globe and Mail*, July 1, 1988)

RECYCLING BEGINS AT HOME
FOLLOW THE 3 R's OF LIMIT-ING WASTE
RECYCLE RE-USE REDUCE

??????

To achieve sustainable growth in Canada, what choices will we have to make as a country? as individuals?

Information Sources for Environment: Brundtland, ***Our Common Future***, 1987; CIDA, ***Development***, June 1986; CIDA, ***Sharing Our Future***, 1987; Harrison, ***The Greening of Africa***, London: Paladin, 1987; Myers, N. (ed.) ***Gaia: An Atlas of Planet Management*** N.Y.: Anchor Books, 1984; ***New Internationalist***, June 1988; Timberlake, ***Africa in Crisis*** , London: Earthscan, 1985; Timberlake, ***Only One Earth*** , London: BBC Books, 1987; United Nations Association (Vancouver Branch), ***Sustainable Development for Our Common Future***.

Illustration: Louise Bourbonnais, CIDA

ACTIVITIES:

1. Africa — Key Solutions:

You are a soils engineer, applying for a job. The job is to oversee the efforts of a coalition of Canadian NGOs (non-governmental organizations) to reverse environmental degradation in the Sahel. Tomorrow you will attend an interview with representatives from the NGOs involved. They will want to know how much background you have on this issue, and what will be your basic approach to environmental projects in Africa. Read pages 2 to 9, and prepare a set of notes for the interview, stressing your key solutions on what kinds of development can best help Africa. If you do get the job, whom will you consult with? What kinds of projects will you be interested in promoting?

2. Poverty and Environment:

Read "An Important Reminder", page 9. In what ways is personal poverty linked to environmental destruction? In what ways, do you think, is national poverty linked to environmental destruction? In what ways do you think that Africa's enormous foreign debt might lead to increased environmental destruction? Write an essay on the topic:

"Environmental degradation will only be overcome through the elimination of its basic cause: poverty."

3. "Western technical expertise" — blessing or curse?

Read pages 5-6,"Projects that Haven't Worked", and also pages 7-9,"So What Does Work?". It seems that western advisers needed to learn a few things before they can be helpful in the African situation. In pairs, take two roles: an African traditional farmer and a "western expert". Have a conversation about some of the benefits and shortcomings on each side, and attempt to come to some conclusions about what lessons need to be learned in order for useful environmental improvements to be made. Record some of the high points of your conversation and prepare to act it out to your class.

4. Forest Policy and People:

B.C. backbencher Graham Bruce is the M.L.A. and former mayor of Duncan, a town which has a high degree of involvement in the forest industry. In September 1988, Mr. Bruce proposed that the answer to having well-managed forests in B.C. would be to give more control to the communities which depend on the forest industry for their living, in effect, establishing a municipal forest program.

"Involving municipal governments in such a program means that the revenues raised through municipal forest management would be theirs to spend and manage and means also that they would have to deal head-on with all of the concerns being raised." (Graham Bruce, quoted in Times-Colonist, September 24, 1988)

Read "THE TREES: Managing, Planting and Saving Them", page 7, and the bottom two-thirds of page 11. What are the advantages of Mr. Bruce's proposal? The disadvantages? Discuss this in small groups and then, individually, prepare a short essay on the topic, "Municipal control of our forest industry will reverse the present trend of deforestation in Canada." (Take a position for or against.)

5. The Rainforest:

Everyone seems to agree that the rainforests need to be saved both as a genetic resource and as the "lungs of the world". But who should pay? The poor countries of Brazil, Indonesia and Zaire? Read pages 10-11 and 13-14. Then prepare a simulated "Emergency Conference on the Fate of the Rainforest". Prepare to take the following roles: Ministers of Forests from Zaire, Brazil and Indonesia; Government Officials from Canada and U.S.; Representative from the pharmaceutical companies of Eli Lilly & Co. and Ciba-Geigy; environmental scientists from Canada, the U.S. and Europe; representatives from a North American hamburger chain which buys cattle from Brazil; representatives from the World Bank. Discuss this question from the perspectives of your roles, and try to come up with an equitable solution.

6. Pesticides: Prior Informed Consent:

Read "Pesticides", p. 12.

In November 1985, a voluntary code of conduct on pesticides was adopted by the FAO (UN Food and Agriculture Organization). Due to pressure from industrialized countries, the code left out something which many Third World countries had asked for: a "prior informed consent" (pic) clause. The principle of informed consent states that pesticides banned or severely restricted in one country cannot be exported into another without the written consent of the importing country.

Do one of the following:

1)) Write a short essay on the topic:
A CODE OF CONDUCT ON PESTICIDES: Why it's needed; What it should contain.

2) In a small group, re-enact the November 1985 FAO meeting in which the voluntary code of conduct on pesticides was discussed. Take the following parts: Third World representatives, First World representatives, pesticide company lobby group, Third World farmers lobby group, an FAO chairperson.

7. Fossil Fuel— A World Perspective:

Consider the following statements:

Fossil fuels are limited in amount.
Our use of fossil fuels is making our earth uninhabitable.
The countries which are the present polluters are First and Second World Countries (see page14).
Developing countries need to use more fossil fuels in order to develop.

The Brundtland Report, *Our Common Future*, implies that if the poorer countries are to have more economic growth and a greater share of the world's environmental capital, then the rich countries must use less. HOW DOES THIS AFFECT US ***FIRST WORLD*** INHABITANTS?

Considering this question from all sides, come up with a policy which you think would lead to
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL.

8. Pollution Top Nine:

After reading about the Greenhouse Effect (pages 13-14), examine the table on WORLD CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS, page 14. Prepare a bar graph, illustrating CO_2 emissions listed. How many of these countries are in the Third World? The First and Second Worlds? Which countries will feel the effects of the Greenhouse Effect, if trends are not reversed? Pretend that you are the UN Ambassador of a small, coastal West African country. Using your bar graph as an illustration, outline a speech which you might make to the First World on the steps which they need to take to prevent world disaster.

9. Pollution Solutions:

Read about some of the First World's pollution problems on pages 12 to14. It seems as if some major policy changes are needed at world, national and personal levels. Make up a three-tiered policy list:

1. TOWARDS A SUSTAINABLE WORLD
   WORLD ACTIONS NEEDED:

2. NATIONAL ACTIONS NEEDED:

3. PERSONAL ACTIONS NEEDED:

Be prepared to defend each of your policies.

Part 6: ENVIRONMENT
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

Why do both First and Third Worlds seem to be headed for environmental disaster?

In what way is the First World dumping its environmental problems on the Third World?

What are the solutions?

OVERVIEW:

Africa's two major environmental problems—desertification and deforestation—are discussed, along with the root causes and possible solutions. Some north-south environmental linkages are examined: the effect of rainforest disappearance on the North; deforestation and desertification in the North; the effect of Northern waste and pollution on the South. Students are challenged to consider solutions.

Key Concepts:

- Africa's two major—and related—environmental problems are desertification and deforestation.
- The primary causes for both are the increased pressures of population and export cropping placed on traditional African shifting-cultivation agriculture. These pressures to intensify agriculture have led to soil exhaustion and cultivation of forests and fragile grasslands, which in turn become exhausted and eroded.
- A third, and major cause of increased environmental degradation has been the environmentally-damaging nature of many development projects. Governments and development agencies have recently reassessed these projects, and smaller, environmentally-sound self-help projects are an increasing sign of hope.
- Africa's problems don't relate only to Africa. The North is dependent on Third World tropical rainforest, which is disappearing rapidly.
- Canada, like Africa, has a problem of disappearing forest.
- The North intensifies the environmental problems of the South by the excess emission of CO_2 by the destruction of the ozone layer, and by utilizing the South as a dumping ground for toxic waste and pesticides.
- When we look at "sustainable development", we need to consider not only Africa's future, but our own.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES

The Fragile Mountain (NFB 106C 0182 123, 55 min.)

Although this film is about Nepal, rather than Africa, the problems which it describes—population pressures, cultivation of marginal land, deforestation, and the resulting flood damage—are just as true of Africa. Although the film is long, it is conveniently divided into two reels, and the first half, describing the problems, could be used effectively by itself. In part two, attempts by the Nepalese government to deal with the problem—conservation projects, biogas, hydro-power—are discussed. The most hopeful avenue, concludes the film, is that of community-owned and operated forestry projects. An excellent, comprehensive film.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: This film could either be used at the beginning of a unit on environmental degradation, or at the end, as a case study of the problems which have been studies. In either case, students might be asked to consider the following:

"Floods are the fastest growing natural disaster: 5.2 million people were affected per year in the 1960s, 15.4 million per year in the 1970s."

(Timberlake, Africa in Crisis)

Preceeding the first reel:
Why are we getting more floods? Ask the students to list all the factors they can think of, then watch the film for more.

Preceeding the second reel:
What solutions can they suggest? Watch the film to see what answers the Nepalese have devised.

Trees of Hope (NFB 106C 0185 093, 18 min.)

This short film by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) highlights the problem of deforestation in Africa, and the relationship between trees, drought, and environmental degradation . Options to reduce the use of firewood are considered: alternative technology, improved stoves, improved charcoal kilns. The greatest hope, however, appears to be community forestry projects, where the tree cutter also becomes a tree planter. The example of Niger is used as an example of how community-controlled woodlots can provide a dual answer to the problems of environmental degradation and fuel availability.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Ask students to imagine themselves Minister of Environment of a small West African country. The population is increasingly rapidly. Deforestation, coupled with drought, is leading to erosion. Lack of sufficient fuel for firewood is also a major national problem.

WHAT STEPS SHOULD BE TAKEN, GIVEN THE LIMITED BUDGET OF THIS COUNTRY, TO STOP THE INROADS OF DEFORESTATION?

Following a discussion, in which ideas are noted, watch the film for additional ideas, to be added to the list in post-film discussion.

Trees of Plenty (NFB 106C 0186 134, 20 min.)

Unlike *Trees of Hope*, which is set totally in Africa, this film highlights efforts in Nepal, Costa Rica and Nigeria to combat deforestation and erosion by agroforestry—the planting of leguminous, nitrogen-fixing trees along with crops. The Nigeria example illustrates the "alley-cropping" technique discussed on page 8.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Brainstorm possible uses for trees: construction, erosion-protection, nutrients for soil, fencing, fodder, fruit.... Watch film to see how trees can be combined with agriculture to simulataneously answer a number of needs.

SOS...Africa ... Forests (NFB 113C 0187 140 — VHS, 58 min.)

This video is overly long, and suffers in the translation from the French original. However, it does give a reasonably good overview of environmental problems in the Sahel: population growth leading to stress on the soil, the fuelwood crisis, cutting of tropical forests. The main message is that reforestation, to be successful, must involve community participation, and be part of a "total package" including food production and the combatting of poverty.

Pre-viewing Suggestion: Ask students to take notes during the video on the problems discussed, and suggested solutions.

Why Do They Keep Having Children?

Part 7

POPULATION

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

contents

Part 7: Population

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Population 1-2

Africa and Population:
- Why Do African Women Have So Many Children? ... 2-3
- What's the Answer? 4
- Zimbabwe: A Birth Control Success Story 5
- A Note on Distribution 5

Urbanization:
- Overview 6
- Why This Migration to the Cities? 7
- Problems of Urbanization:
  - Food Production 7
  - Strain on the Cities 8
  - Unemployment 8-9
  - Employment in the Informal Sector 9
- Solutions:
  - Keeping the Folks on the Farm 10
  - Improving Conditions in the Cities 10-12
  - Solutions to Unemployment 12

Refugees 13-14

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 14-15

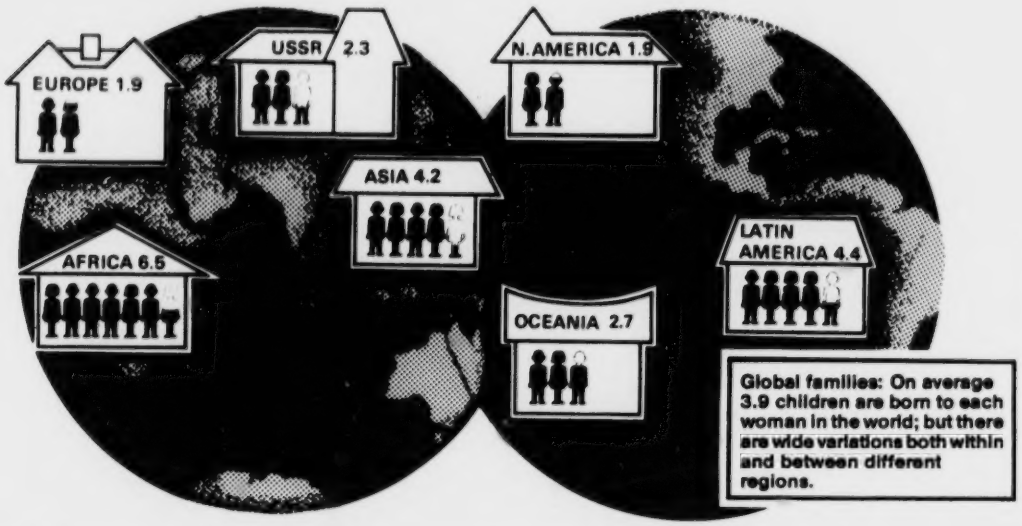
TEACHER NOTES 16

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 17-18

POPULATION

Every minute the global population grows by 150; every day by 220,000; every year by over 80 million.

(United Nations Fund for Population Activities Annual Report 1986)


EUROPE 1.9
USSR 2.3
N.AMERICA 1.9
ASIA 4.2
AFRICA 6.5
LATIN AMERICA 4.4
OCEANIA 2.7
Global families: On average 3.9 children are born to each woman in the world; but there are wide variations both within and between different regions.

(New Internationalist, October 1987)

A GrimWarning: No Room on the Planet

Saturday, September 3:
The Club of Earth, a group of prominent scientists, issues this warning at their international meeting:

★ Earth's population will eventually exceed 8 billion people : 3 billion more than now.

★ Environmental problems will increase.

★ Food, land, minerals and fuels will be seriously depleted.

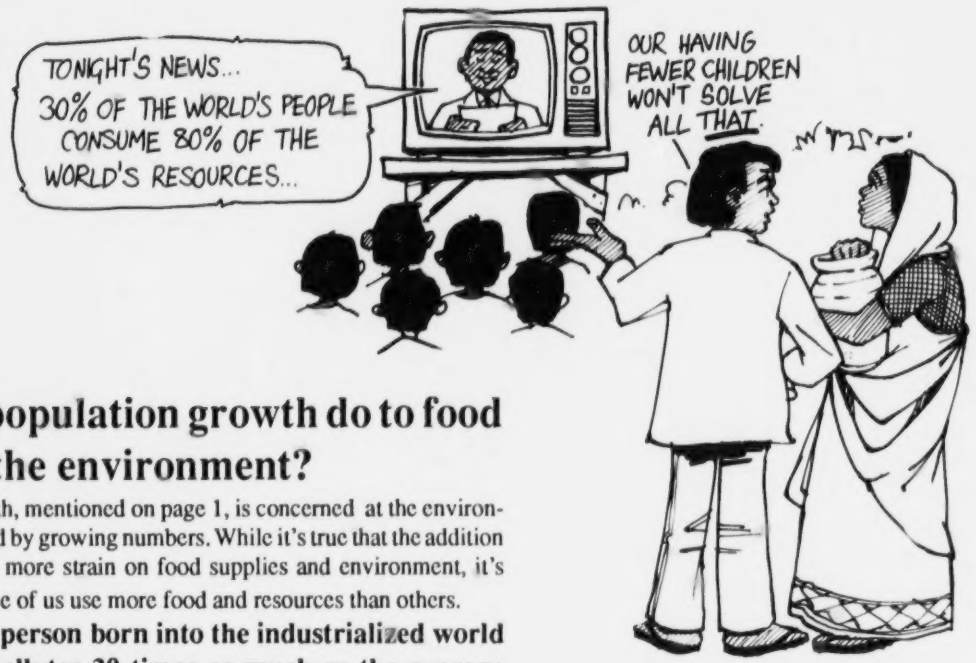
*(Information Source: **Times-Colonist**, Sept.4, 1988)*

Our numbers are growing by leaps and bounds. But the growth rate isn't even, as we can see in the illustration above. Population growth rates have slowed in the developed world to a mere 0.6 per cent (1980-86). While they have also slowed down slightly in the developing world (2 per cent in the years 1980-86, compared to 2.1 in 1973-80), Third World populations are expanding at a rapid rate. This doesn't mean that people are having more children than they used to, but that improved health care has meant that more of them are living longer.

If we continue in the present trend, according to World Bank figures, our population will probably stabilize in about 2045 A.D. In that year, the distribution of the world's more than 10 billion people should look something like this:

	1985(m)	2045(m)	% of total
ASIA (incl. China)	2,552	5,213	51
AFRICA (Sub-Sahara)	442	2,144	21
LATIN AMERICA	383	879	9
EUROPE (inc. USSR)	745	858	8
MIDDLE-EAST (and NORTH AFRICA)	315	706	7
NORTH AMERICA	264	306	3
OCEANIA	19	24	0.2
WORLD	4,720	10,130	

(New Internationalist, October 1987)



What will population growth do to food supplies? the environment?

The Club of Earth, mentioned on page 1, is concerned at the environmental strain imposed by growing numbers. While it's true that the addition of more people puts more strain on food supplies and environment, it's equally true that some of us use more food and resources than others.

The average person born into the industrialized world consumes and pollutes 30 times as much as the average person born into the developing world.

AFRICA AND POPULATION

©CWDE

Sub-Saharan Africa, the poorest region of the world, has the highest rate of population growth in the world —3.3 per cent. What is more, while other developing regions were maintaining or decreasing their birthrates, Africa was increasing hers. At its current growth rate, Africa's population will ***double*** in 22 years. The fastest-growing country in the world is Kenya, whose 20 million population, at current rates of growth (4 per cent a year) will double by 2005.

Some Africans believe that Africa doesn't have a population problem—that Africa, with its meager 18.2 people per square kilometer (compared to Europe's 101 or Asia's 102) needs *more* people. However, if we subtract from Africa's land mass all her areas of desert and impenetrable forest, we are left with a density of 39 people per square kilometer (1985 population figures). By 2025, even assuming all the forest were cleared, Africa's population density on her non-arid area will be equivalent to that of present-day Europe. *(Information Source: Harrison, **The Greening of Africa**. London: Paladin, 1987)*

Why do African women have so many children?

1 TO DO THE WORK

In most of Africa, farming is done by hand. In much of Africa, the men migrate to the cities to get jobs to help support their families, leaving the women to raise the children, tend and harvest crops, prepare the food, gather firewood and collect water.

WHAT CHANGES IN THE WORK SITUATION WOULD MAKE SMALL FAMILIES MORE DESIRABLE?

2 TO PROVIDE SECURITY

"When you have many children, they can all get different jobs. One can be a builder and mend your house, one can be a nurse and look after your health, one can work in Harare and bring you money. They are all bringing things into the family, and when I die all those children and grandchildren will come together and bury me."

(Samuel Chiodze, a Zimbabwean farmer with 4 wives and 28 children, who occupies 12 acres of land. Quoted in Harrison, The Greening of Africa, 1987.)

WHAT CHANGES IN THE SECURITY SYSTEM WILL BE NEEDED IF CHILDREN AREN'T TO BE USED AS A HEALTH AND OLD AGE SECURITY MEASURE?

3 TO MAKE SURE SOME REACH MATURITY

Sub-Saharan Africa has an Infant Mortality Rate of 123. That means that out of 1,000 born, 123 die before reaching their first birthday. Canada's IMR is 8. "Family planning", from an "insurance perspective" (making sure some children survive), will look somewhat different for African and Canadian parents.

WHAT CHANGES WILL NEED TO HAPPEN IN AFRICA BEFORE WOMEN WILL HAVE FEWER CHILDREN?

4 TO WIN POWER

For many Africans, children are a means of achieving success. Land is owned communally in many areas of Africa, and land is allocated according to the size of a man's family; the bigger the family, the larger the area it controls.

"Life is like a huge Monopoly game in which accumulating wives and children is the best way to acquiring movable property and power. Large numbers of children are not simply the symbol of success: they are the principal means of achieving success." *(Paul Harrison, The Greening of Africa)*

Tribalism also plays a part in large families. Tribes which are larger and stronger wield more power. Jomo Kenyatta, the first president of Kenya, provided incentives for tribes to expand by granting political favours and development projects to the most populous tribes, and even today large tribes exercise great influence in the government.

HOW WILL THE INCENTIVE SYSTEM NEED TO CHANGE IF POPULATION RATES ARE TO DECREASE?

5 TO ACHIEVE STATUS

For many African women, the only way of achieving status is to have a large number of healthy, successful children. Children in Africa are considered "gifts from god", and the African woman who is barren is considered unfortunate indeed.

For African women, who have no secure rights to land of their own, sons are a key to security. If their husbands die or divorce them, they depend on their adult male sons for access to land and food.

WHAT CHANGES WILL NEED TO BE MADE IN ORDER FOR WOMEN TO REDUCE THEIR DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN?

6 NO CHOICE

In addition to all these reasons, many African women have children because they feel they have little choice in the matter. Their husbands want to have more children, and they are the ones who decide. Often, women who *do* feel they have enough children have no access to contraception. In Africa, less than a quarter of women not wanting any more births are practising contraception; in Asia the figure is 43 per cent, and in Latin America, 57 per cent.

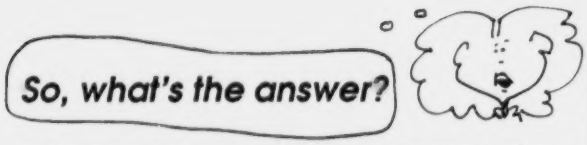
"If all women who said they wanted no more children were able to stop childbearing, the number of births would be reduced by 27 per cent in Africa, 33 per cent in Asia, and 35 per cent in Latin America."

(UNFPA 1987 Report)

HOW CAN WOMEN BE GIVEN MORE CHOICE OVER FAMILY SIZE?

PUNCHLINE
by ©CHRISTIAN
WE HERE AT THE FAMILY PLANNING CENTER...
WE ARE TWO, WE
THOUGHT YOU WERE PLANNING TO HAVE JUST TWO OFFSPRING!
WE ARE TWO, WE
I DO.
WE ARE TWO, WE
BUT ACCORDING TO YOUR FILE YOU HAVE SIX CHILDREN!
WE ARE TWO, WE
4 WILL PROBABLY DIE OF DISEASE BEFORE AGE 5...
WE ARE TWO, WE

New Internationalist July 1987



In the past, governments and development agencies have considered the answer to be simple. With enough contraceptives, along with some education on how and why to use them, the problem would be soon solved.

It hasn't worked.

People in many developing countries continue to have children because it makes sense for them to have large families.

Well, what things would need to change to make people want smaller families?

① Increasing Incomes

As in other areas, the number one enemy in the population field is POVERTY. The poorer people are, the more children they have. There's little additional cost involved for the family, and children can help with the work, as well as bring an increase in security for their parents. Poor people aren't troubled by the "expensive children" worries of richer people—education, health care, opportunities.

TABLE 1 shows the relationship between a country's GNP and its birthrate. TABLE 2 shows that it's not just the GNP which is important, but the distribution of wealth within a country. The higher the incomes of average families, the lower the birthrate tends to be.

② Improving Health Care, Water Supply, Sanitation, and Nutrition

When parents know their children have a good chance of living to maturity, they will not need to have "extra" children. What is the general relationship in TABLE 1 between IMR—Infant Mortality Rate (number of infant deaths per 1,000 live births)— and total fertility rate?

③ Changing the Status of Women

"Women in most developing countries still derive their status in their community from their positions as wives and mothers. An important contribution to lower fertility will therefore be change in the way women derive their status. Contributing to a change are the legal right to own and inherit property, the right to vote, the right to choice in marriage and divorce, education, acknowledged life options other than childbearing—and, of course, access to family planning information and services."

(UNFPA 1987 Report)

TABLE 1

Facts on Selected Countries

COUNTRY	Total Fertility Rate(1986)*	IMR	GNP per Capita ($)
Ethiopia	6.3	155	120
Burkina Faso	6.5	140	150
Tanzania	7.0	108	250
Kenya	7.7	74	300
Ghana	6.3	89	390
Nigeria	6.9	104	640
Mexico	3.7	48	1,860
Sweden	1.7	6	13,160
Canada	1.7	8	14,120
United States	1.9	10	17,480

**Total fertility rate refers to the number of children the average women will bear if she lives to the end of her child-bearing years.*

(Figures from World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

TABLE 2

Fertility and equality

It is not just the wealth of a nation that influences whether people will choose to have fewer children. Far more important is the distribution of that wealth to individual families.

	Per Capita GNP ($)	% of wealth Owned by Richest 10%	Total Fertility Rate
KENYA	300	45.8	7.7
SRI LANKA	400	34.7	2.9
MEXICO	1,860	40.6	3.7
N. KOREA	2,370	27.5	2.2

(World Bank, World Development Report, 1988)

Better education for women is a key to reducing population growth. When women are educated and have job opportunities, they will be more likely to reduce the size of their families, and to plan for their own children's education. Children will be seen, not as extra hands to do the work, but as young people who need books, uniforms and school fees.

BIRTH CONTROL: A Success Story

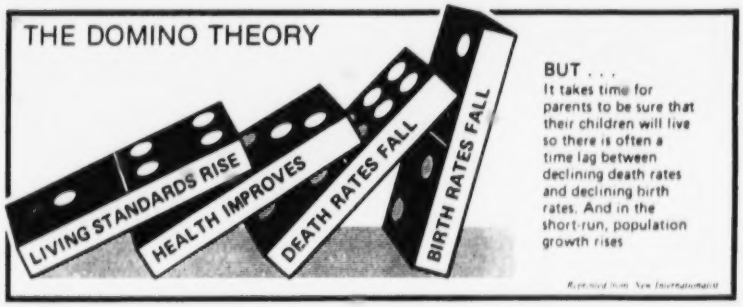
ZIMBABWE

For several years after Zimbabwe's independence in 1980, family planning was an unpopular concept in Zimbabwe. This was partly because, under the white rule of pre-independence, family planning was seen as a white conspiracy to keep down the black population. (The black people in South Africa, urged to limit the size of families by the apartheid government, also believe that the concept of family planning in this context is politically motivated.)

In 1983 a Ghanaian doctor, Esther Boohene, became director of the Zimbabwean family planning program. She decided to take an African approach to the problem. Instead of stressing the ***limiting*** of family size, her program stressed ***spacing*** of children. Child spacing—which increases the health of both child and mother—was a traditional part of Zimbabwean culture.

By 1985, the program was putting out radio broadcasts in the two main languages of Zimbabwe, holding exhibitions at agriculture shows, and sending youth advisors to give talks in schools, colleges and community groups. As well, new clinics, and a network of 520 community-based distributors(CBDs) were set up. The CDBs are local people — mostly women — chosen by their villages, who receive training, a bicycle, and contraceptive supplies, and who cover a radius of 20 kilometres distributing contraceptives, educating women, and checking on their progress.

This program was not carried out in isolation. Zimbabwe has a high level of education for its women (94 per cent attend primary school, and 68 per cent attend secondary school), and a relatively low infant mortality rate (74 per 1,000). The percentage of women of child-bearing age presently using contraceptives in Zimbabwe is 40%, a very high percentage in Africa.


THE DOMINO THEORY
LIVING STANDARDS RISE
HEALTH IMPROVES
DEATH RATES FALL
BIRTH RATES FALL
BUT . . .
It takes time for parents to be sure that their children will live so there is often a time lag between declining death rates and declining birth rates. And in the short-run, population growth rises

A Note on Distribution

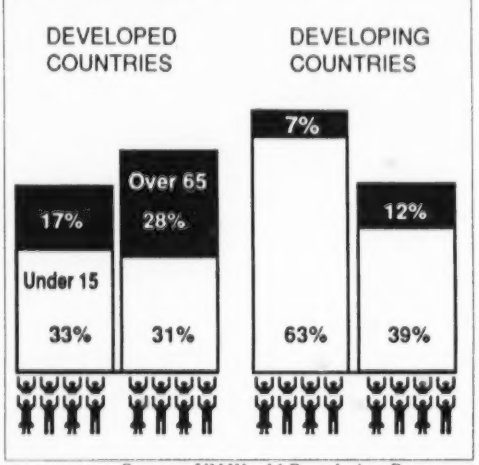
Average age in the First World: 33 years
Average age in the Third World: 21 years

The developing world is more youthful, primarily because of higher birth rates. In Kenya in 1986, for example, there were 52 births for every thousand people, compared with only 15 in Canada, 12 in Japan, and 11 in Denmark. What does this mean to government planners?

- ❑ Young and old must rely on the working population (aged 15 to 64) to support them—to pay for their schooling and their pensions. What happens to health services and senior citizen services when a population is "greying"?
- ❑ What happens to school budgets when a population is young?

MUTUAL SUPPORT

The working population helps support the very young and the very old. The diagram shows the 'dependency ratio': the number of young and old people in developed and developing countries for every hundred adults between 15 and 64. And it shows how the pattern is likely to change over the next 40 years.



Source: UN World Population Prospects

In Angola, 40 per cent of the population is under 15 years old, and 4 per cent of the population is over 60. The average age is 18.6 years.
*("A Youthful Nation", **AfricAsia**, February 1987)*

In Canada, 21 per cent of the population is under 15 years old, and 15 per cent of the population is over 60. The median age is 31.6 years.
(Canadian Census, 1986 figures)

MIGRATIONS

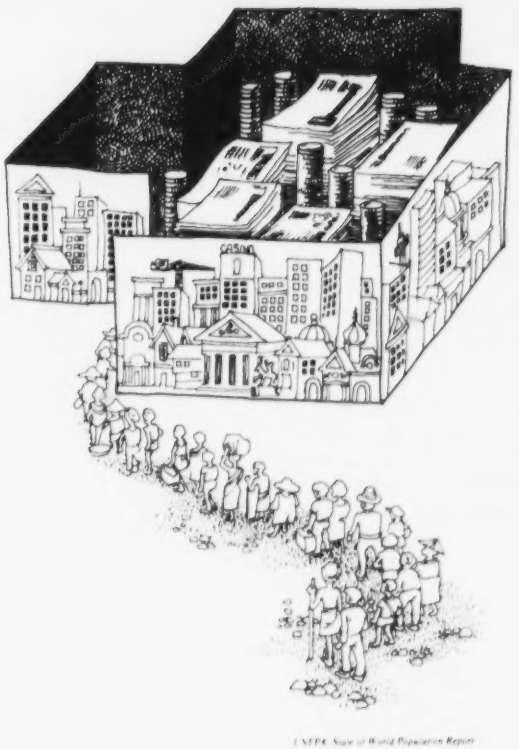
People are not staying put. For a multiplicity of reasons, people are choosing to move from country to city, are being forced by war or famine to leave their homelands, are being driven from the habitats of their forefathers. The largest form of migration, and one which is happening the world over, is URBANIZATION.

URBANIZATION

"How 'ya gonna keep em down on the farm, after they've seen Paree?"
(Eddie Cantor song, 1920's)

"... about half the world's people will live in urban areas by the year 2000, and some 62 per cent by 2025. If present rates continue, only a dozen years from now there will be close to 300 cities in the Third World with over one million inhabitants, including some 'megacities' of sizes without precedent in human history."
(CIDA, Development, Winter 1987-88)

"We don't even know whether cities of 30 million and more can exist—whether they are too big to work... whether they will be tolerated by nature. There is no precedent; there is nothing in our history to guide us."
(Canadian External Relations Minister Monique Landry, Capitals of the World Conference, Ottawa)



[UNFPA, State of World Population Report]

People in Africa, as in other parts of the world, are pouring into cities at an enormous rate. In 1950 only 33 million Africans—15 per cent of the total population—lived in cities. Thirty years later the numbers had quadrupled, to 137 million, 29 per cent of the total population. In 1980, Africa's cities were growing much faster than those of any other region, at 5.3 per cent per year. In 1950, Africa had one city of over 1 million people—Cairo. In 1980, there were 19, and by the year 2000, Africa is expected to have 50 "million cities".

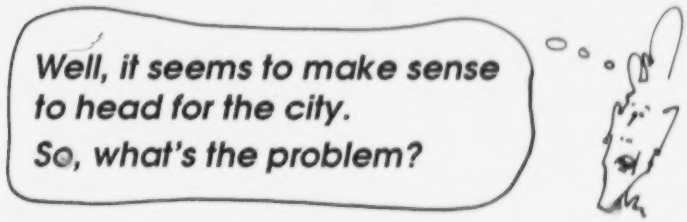
Proportion of Population Living in Urban Areas (Per cent)

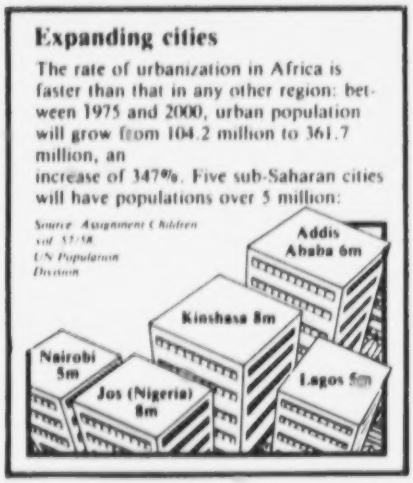
YEAR	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2010	2025
World total	36.9	38.3	39.9	41.6	43.6	45.8	48.2	53.8	62.5
More developed regions	66.4	68.7	70.6	72.4	74.2	76.0	77.8	81.2	85.4
Less developed regions	25.2	27.1	29.4	31.7	34.4	37.3	40.4	47.3	57.7
North America	73.8	73.8	73.8	74.3	75.1	76.4	78.0	81.5	85.7
Africa	22.9	25.6	28.7	32.1	35.5	38.9	42.2	48.7	58.3

(UNFPA, The State of World Population 1986)

Why this migration to the cities?

People leave the country for the city for a variety of reasons: a lack of opportunity, money, and land, which drives them away from the country; and a desire for better work and services which they believe they will find in the city. When we look at the statistics on health, income and education, it seems that they are wise to move to the city. However, these statistics can mask the inequality that exists in most large cities. While wages and services may be better ***on average*** in the city than in the country, the people living in the slums or squatter settlements on the cities' outskirts may not benefit from them.



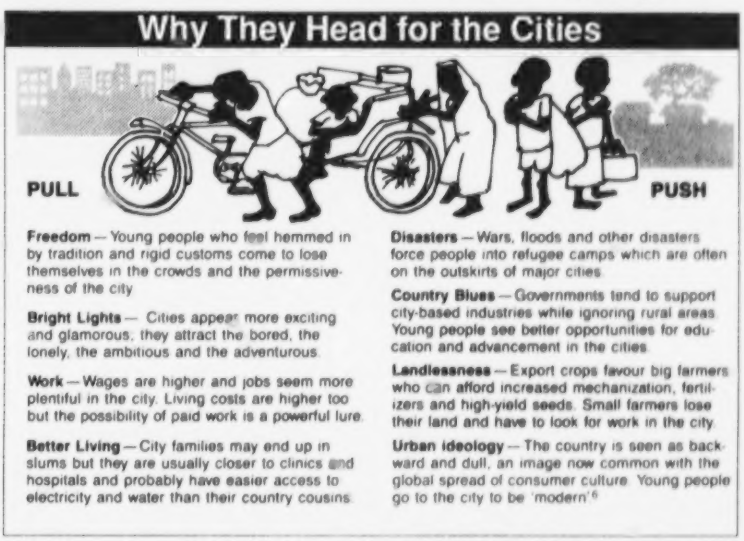

Expanding cities
The rate of urbanization in Africa is faster than that in any other region: between 1975 and 2000, urban population will grow from 104.2 million to 361.7 million, an increase of 347%. Five sub-Saharan cities will have populations over 5 million:
Source: Assignment Children vol. 57/58 UN Population Division
Addis Ababa 6m
Kinshasa 8m
Nairobi 5m
Jos (Nigeria) 8m
Lagos 5m

*Williams, **Children & World Development.** London: UNICEF-UK / Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd., 1987*

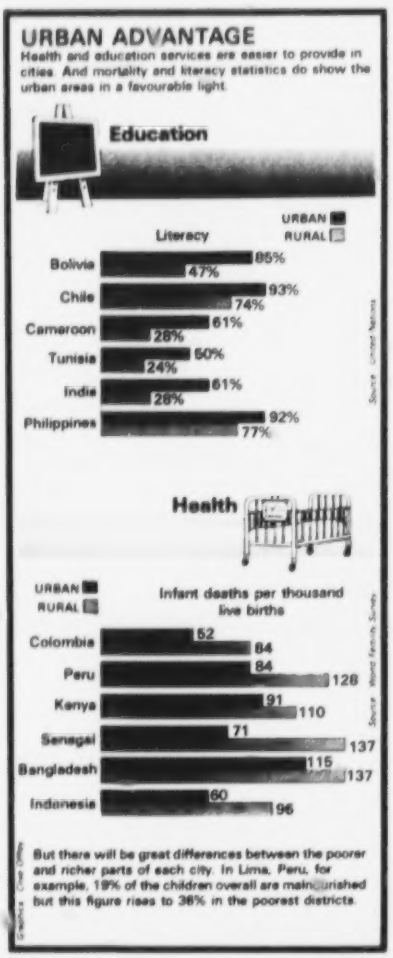
FOOD PRODUCTION:

When the farmers all leave for the city, you're likely to have a food problem. Urban dwellers don't produce food, but they all have to eat. In countries like Canada, where mechanization has replaced many farmers, urbanization may not lead to a food problem . In Africa, where large-scale intensive methods are expensive and often environmentally inappropriate, urbanization may mean hunger. In Africa, the urbanization pattern has been different from that of other regions in that many of the people who flock to the cities are men. They leave the farms, where they can't make enough money to feed their families, to try to get a city job which will enable them to send money back home. Forty per cent of Botswana's rural households have no adult men. Almost half the men have left some provinces of Cameroon. Forty per cent of Zambia's rural families are short of labour.

The farms, the bread-baskets Africa, are left with only the labour of overworked women and children to plant, tend and harvest the crops.


Why They Head for the Cities
PULL
PUSH
Freedom — Young people who feel hemmed in by tradition and rigid customs come to lose themselves in the crowds and the permissiveness of the city.
Bright Lights — Cities appear more exciting and glamorous; they attract the bored, the lonely, the ambitious and the adventurous.
Work — Wages are higher and jobs seem more plentiful in the city. Living costs are higher too but the possibility of paid work is a powerful lure.
Better Living — City families may end up in slums but they are usually closer to clinics and hospitals and probably have easier access to electricity and water than their country cousins.
Disasters — Wars, floods and other disasters force people into refugee camps which are often on the outskirts of major cities.
Country Blues — Governments tend to support city-based industries while ignoring rural areas. Young people see better opportunities for education and advancement in the cities.
Landlessness — Export crops favour big farmers who can afford increased mechanization, fertilizers and high-yield seeds. Small farmers lose their land and have to look for work in the city.
Urban ideology — The country is seen as backward and dull, an image now common with the global spread of consumer culture. Young people go to the city to be 'modern'.

New Internationalist, December 1987


URBAN ADVANTAGE
Health and education services are easier to provide in cities. And mortality and literacy statistics do show the urban areas in a favourable light.
Education
Literacy
URBAN
RURAL
Bolivia 85% 47%
Chile 93% 74%
Cameroon 61% 28%
Tunisia 60% 24%
India 61% 28%
Philippines 92% 77%
Source: United Nations
Health
URBAN
RURAL
Infant deaths per thousand live births
Colombia 52 84
Peru 84 126
Kenya 91 110
Senegal 71 137
Bangladesh 115 137
Indonesia 60 96
Source: World Fertility Survey
But there will be great differences between the poorer and richer parts of each city. In Lima, Peru, for example, 19% of the children overall are malnourished but this figure rises to 38% in the poorest districts.

"Today farming is an old person's profession, and farmers don't have much status unless they have material possessions to show for their work."

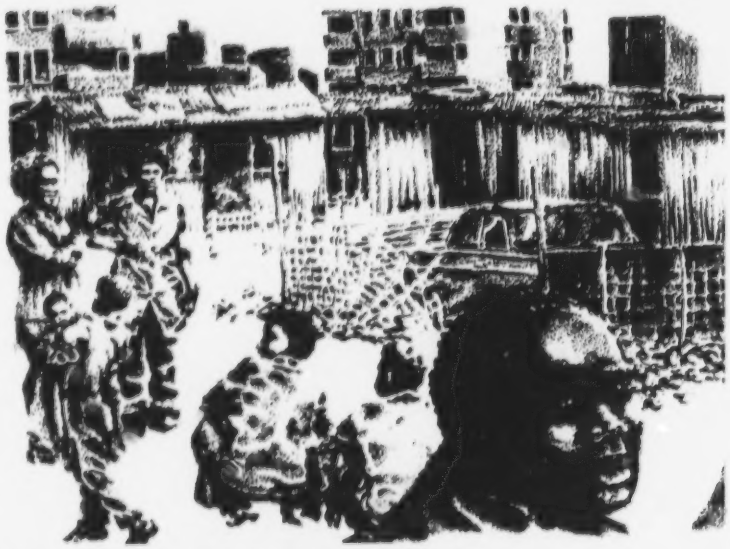
B.N. Okigbo, Nigeria

(quoted in Timberlake, L., Crisis in Africa. London: Earthscan, 1985)

Urbanization also hurts food production in another way. The bigger cities become, the more agricultural land they take away from production. Cities were often built in the centre of fertile land, and so when they spread, the lands they eat up are often high-quality agricultural lands. In Egypt, the Aswan High Dam expanded the amount of cultivable land area by 15 per cent, yet no increase in agriculture has taken place because an equal area of prime farmland has been lost to industrialization and urban sprawl. Canada, too, is fast losing her farmland to urban sprawl.

"Farmland, no matter how fertile, will never grow another hectare of food once it has been paved over with shopping plazas. In the decade and a half between 1961 and 1976, Canada lost more than 1.4 million hectares of farmland to urban sprawl, equivalent to my home province of Prince Edward Island."

Tom McMillan, Canadian Minister of Environment, 1986



STRAIN ON THE CITIES

Cities are having trouble coping with the influx. Particularly in Africa, where countries are burdened with debt, it's hard to find enough money to provide housing, sanitation and services to all the new arrivals.

- **Lagos, Nigeria:** Many new houses have been built on swampland. Seventy-five per cent of families live in single-room dwellings. Almost 80 % of the city's people share kitchen facilities. Only 13 % of homes have running water.
- **Nairobi, Kenya:** Forty per cent of the population of about one million live in squatter communities and shanty towns.
- **Nouakchott, Mauritania:** This is the fastest-growing city in the developing world—43 times bigger in 1982 than in 1965.
- **The Developing World:** About half the people living the Third World have no secure home.

As well, the exploding cities face problems of traffic congestion, pollution, and the social unrest which comes when too many people are too close together in conditions of poverty and squalor.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Young people stream in from the country to the large cities, lured by the promise of jobs and glamour. But what jobs will they find?

Unemployed youth

GENEVA (ILO) — Young people bear the brunt of continuing high rates of unemployment, according to the ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics. Youthful job-seekers account for between 27 and 73 per cent of the unemployed in developing countries, while in developed countries the proportion of jobless young is from 22 to 60 per cent.

The problem is particularly severe in Africa where the ILO estimates that the total labour force will rise to 510 million by the year 2008, of which some 283.5 million will either be unemployed or underemployed.

(Development Forum, July/August 1987)

The percentage of young people aged 15 to 24 among total unemployed:

UK	42%
Canada	47%
Australia	56%
Ghana	60%
India	67%
Syria	79%

(ILO Bureau of Statistics 1980)

Many young people end up finding jobs in the **informal sector**. This means that they work at unofficial jobs, like selling candies or peanuts, washing cars, shining shoes. Often, because they don't have licences, they are considered "illegal".

A PEANUT-VENDOR'S STORY

Two years ago, Tahona, now fourteen, left his home in the Usambara mountains in the north of Tanzania and headed for Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam, which in the mid-60s was home to less than 150,000 people, has, by the mid-80s, reached a population of about 1 million. Half of Tanzania's urban people live there.

When Tahona arrived, he started to look for a job. He found that there was no chance of a job with a regular wage. The factories of Tanzania are running far under capacity because of the lack of foreign exchange. When a machine breaks down, there's no money to buy spare parts. Imported raw materials are hard to come by. The factories which ***are*** running have a permanent line-up of would-be employees outside. Tahona, who has no school-leaving certificate, is well down on any employer's list.

What other ways could he make a living? He started out working informally for others. "I could get space to sleep from someone who wanted a skivvy (odd jobs person)," he says. And he got a few shillings from shopkeepers wanting their goods hawked — illegally — round the streets. But the rewards were meager and the jobs thankless. "If you got caught by the police," he adds, "the employer would say you were lying and had stolen his money." What he wanted was to work on his own.

"I heard about the money you can make from peanuts. So I decided to try it. You need about 15 shillings (two dollars) for your first kilo of peanuts, and then you must find somewhere to prepare them. That means washing, salting, roasting in hot sand over a fire, then sieving and packing in small plastic bags. You can get about 40 bags from a kilo and each one sells for a shilling."

"Independence Avenue has plenty of customers," says Tahona, "but I like to find a place where I can sit and sell in peace." Sell in busy streets or with other boys and you are easily spotted. "Lots of people want to buy from us, but the city council says that we are dirty and cause health problems. So selling peanuts is illegal. Most of the time the police ignore peanut-boys, but once in a while there's a clean-up campaign. Then they swoop."

"If the police catch you," says Tahona, "you can try to give them money. But the best thing is to run." Tahona ran away more than once. His favourite spot at a crossroads outside the Egypt Air office offers good trade plus plenty of escape routes. The first time he was caught he had only sold three packets — he didn't see them coming. Tahona has had two convictions for "trading without a licence".

Tahona could have gone home. He saved 70 shillings to send to his twin sister when she had a baby. And he talks about his responsibility as the only son. But he has found a way to live in the city — as a peanut-boy and perpetual juvenile. He enjoys the shops, the entertainment, the life in Dar es Salaam. "You don't want to go back to the village," he says, "when you have seen Dar es Salaam."

(A Peanut-vendor's Story is based on Chris Sheppard, "Tahona's Story", New Internationalist, January 1982)

Can you find kids like Tahona in Canadian cities? What are they doing for a living?

Canada doesn't face the same high urbanization rate as Tanzania...

URBAN POPULATION: Annual growth rate (per cent)

	1965-80	1980-85
TANZANIA:	8.7	8.3
CANADA:	1.5	1.7

What are some of the factors which have led to high unemployment rates in Canada?

What are some of the answers to the unemployment problem: in Tanzania? in Canada?

Food production, housing and services in the cities, unemployment—these are big problems.
What are governments doing about this situation?

❶ Keeping the folks on the farm:

Governments have tried both direct and indirect means to force or encourage people to stay away from exploding cities.

Direct means:

- **closing the cities, requiring residence permits and travel passes:** According to the International Labour Office (ILO), these methods have been difficult to enforce and have created conflict.
- **rural resettlement, moving people out to land in the country:** This is very expensive, and often results in land erosion and degradation, since the land available is often not good land, and since the people relocated are usually unfamiliar with the area.
- **creation of smaller centres:** Spreading industries to smaller centres has worked well for some countries; the problem is that it often involves large government expenditure, and the small centres often don't grow fast enough to attract large industries, or to make much difference to the flow of people to the large centres.

Indirect means:

- Rural development: Reduce "urban bias" (the over-spending of money on the city, rather than the country), and increase education, health, water and sanitation services in the rural areas.
- Realistic food pricing policy: When people can make enough money to live well, they will stay on their farms and produce food.

❷ Improving Conditions in the Cities

squatter *[skwoter] n.* one who illegally settles in unoccupied buildings or land

In some ways, there is a direct contradiction between the goal of halting urban migration and improving conditions in the squatter settlements. Many Third World governments are aware of this. If you improve squatter settlements too much, you'll increase the lure of the city. In the past, squatters have been discouraged by having their illegal dwellings bulldozed, finding themselves evicted, or being denied basic water and sanitation services. However, these measures did not make the squatters go home; squatters just rebuilt their ramshackle dwellings somewhere else. Many governments, realizing this, are now taking steps to upgrade the living conditions in squatter settlements.

A Major Problem: How can you improve conditions for squatters, without encouraging more of them to come? What do *you* think?

Homeless People

Roughly 20 per cent of the world's five billion people live in inadequate housing, and 100 million of them have no shelter at all.

UN World Health Organization, September, 1987

Meanwhile, back in Canada...

A "snapshot survey" taken Jan. 22, 1987 by the Canadian Council of Social Development showed nearly 8,000 people had to rely on emergency shelters that night.

That means more than 100,000 Canadians were homeless sometime during the last year, the council said.

*(Information from **The Gazette**, Montreal, Sept. 14/87)*

In the year 2,000...2 billion people in the cities:

"The majority will belong to the urban poor and will swell slums, shanty towns and squatter settlements beyond the limits of what is already a sea of human despair and squalor."

"What is unacceptable now . . . will become intolerable then, patience will give way to anger and frustration, and we may see many of the developing countries slip rapidly down the path of turmoil and political and social instability unless a concerted effort is made now."

Arcot Ramachandran, executive director of the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, September, 1987

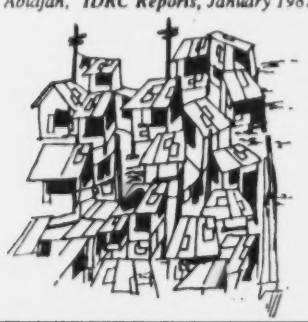
Suppose you were in charge of housing and services for a large African city, where hundreds of thousands of people lived illegally in squatter settlements. What would you do—given a very limited budget—to improve their situation?

OPTION 1: Build New Houses

Past attempts at housing the urban poor have included bulldozing down all the ramshackle dwellings and re-housing people in standardized housing. This hasn't worked very well. These projects have been very expensive, and often have produced houses which poor people can't afford. The new homes haven't fitted people's needs. Too often, the new projects have built houses, but neglected the other services needed in a community. A report on low-cost housing in Abidjan, capital of Ivory Coast, which is growing by 10.5 per cent per year, had this to say:

"Some low-cost housing has been built in areas with no schools, post offices, or access to vital services. And the monotonous architectural style of many houses is at odds with the 'African way of life '. People have added rooms, extra floors, or exterior decorations to adapt their dwellings to their tastes and needs. And given that more than half of the families in Abidjan's low-income areas have 5 to 10 members, many of the state's housing units are just not large enough. Housing must be humanized so that people are not condemned to live in rabbit cages."

(Report by Marcel Djamat, quoted in L. Doucet, "Servicing Africa's Cities: The Case of Abidjan," IDRC Reports, January 1987)



OPTION 2: Help the Do-it-Yourselfers

While you are reading this, squatters are busy building houses. They are building them out of tin cans, cardboard, mud, sticks, sheets of plastic—practically anything they can get their hands on. What about helping them get legal title to their land, and lend them money for better building materials? This has been the emphasis of many recent "sites-and-service" schemes.

A TALE OF TWO SITE-AND-SERVICE PROJECTS:

CASE 1: Slum Clearance in Dakar

Nimzatt and Angle-Mousse were "bidonvilles" or slums near the port of Dakar in Senegal. Most of the inhabitants worked as day labourers in Dakar. Streets were filled with garbage, there were no sewage facilities, and families lived in constant danger of fire and flooding. But they did have some employment, and children could attend schools in Dakar. The Senegalese housing authorities informed the residents of Nimzatt and Angle-Mousse that they were to be moved to Guediawaye, which was much farther away from Dakar. There, they would have legal title to a plot of land, and services would be provided.

The inhabitants of Nimzatt and Angle-Mousse watched their homes being destroyed by bulldozers, as they waited for friends or taxis to move them to their new location. Once they were there, they had land and services, but no assistance to build their new houses. Building materials were scarce and far away. Bus transportation to Dakar was irregular and expensive; people spent several hours a day commuting.

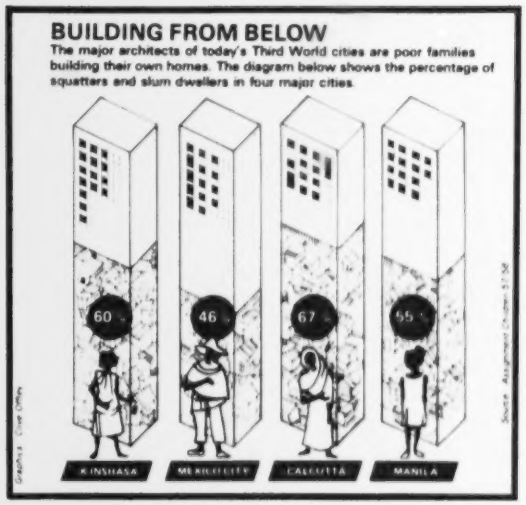
In the words of one resident of Guediawaye:
"The bad thing for all the inhabitants was that they were never asked to give their opinion or at least their wishes for the future of their neighbourhood."

(From Rosenberg, H, and FitzGerald, M. Surviving in the City: Urbanization in the Third World, OXFAM-Canada, 1983)

CASE 2 Rebuilding Naledi:

Until 1975, Naledi—a squatter settlement outside Gaberone, the capital city of Botswana—was illegal. The government policy was to bulldoze the ramshackle houses, and move people to a new low-cost housing area called New Naledi, where they were charged subsidized rent. Because New Naledi couldn't keep up with the demand for housing, the government changed its policy in 1975. Naledi became legal, and plans were made to upgrade it. The residents gained security of tenure through receipt of a 99 year Certificate of Rights for their housing plots. The residents themselves were involved in the upgrading and the city council provided loans for building material and advice on building methods. By 1980, Naledi was a fairly self-contained community with many services—a health centre, market place, schools and community centre.

(From Welsh, M., "Housing in Lusaka: an example of self-help", Slater (ed), People and Environments, London: Collins Educational, 1986)


BUILDING FROM BELOW
The major architects of today's Third World cities are poor families building their own homes. The diagram below shows the percentage of squatters and slum dwellers in four major cities.
60
46
67
55
KINSHASA
MEXICO CITY
CALCUTTA
MANILA

What are the components of a successful self-help scheme?

• Legal title to the land: Why is this an important incentive for upgrading?

• Money: How will the squatter be able to buy materials? What kind of credit is needed? How will he or she pay it back? Should it *all* have to be paid back?

• Materials: What materials are appropriate? How can a project director make sure the people aren't getting ripped off by paying high prices for materials?

•Advice: How can people be helped with design suggestions and financial advice?

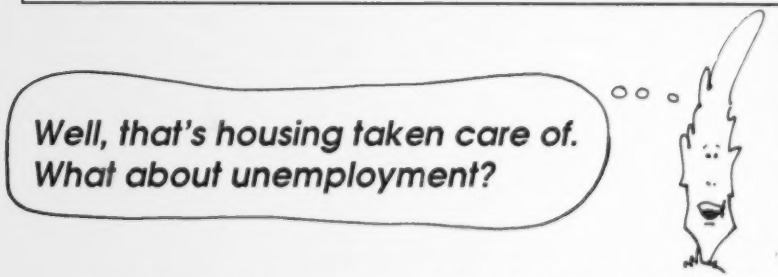
• Community cooperation: How can communities be involved in saying what they want in their community? How important is this? Can it safely be left up to experts?

Getting the Right Materials

Many Third World countries import about three-fifths of materials used for official construction, which is between 5 and 8 per cent of their national imports. This is a great drain on their financial resources. While the average Northern European worker in the late 1970s could, for example, buy 10 bags of cement with a day's wages, according to the Worldwatch Institute, a rural African worker needed 10 days' wages to buy the same amount. Furthermore, the cost of transporting cement over 100 km can exceed the cost of production—as in Botswana and Sudan, for example. Retired Tanzanian President Julius Nyerere, a frugal man, once referred to the addiction to the use of cement in construction as a mental paralysis that impeded development and improvement in housing quality by absorbing badly needed capital.

One inexpensive and durable building material is ***dirt.*** It can be mixed with a little asphalt and pressed with simple technology to make "asfadobe" bricks. In Sudan, these can be produced for a fifth of the price of cement blocks.

*(D. Byabalumu, "The Housing Crunch," **IDRC Reports**, January 1987)*



Unemployment is a big problem, not just for Africa, but for all of us. In Africa, the solution may partly lie in rural development, in making rural life a more attractive option for young men like Tahona (see **A Peanut-Vendor's Story**, page 9), so that they will stay employed in the agriculture which is a mainstay for their nation. But what about the youths who do flock to the cities; can you think of ways in which they might be given more security? More opportunities?

In Canada, the reasons for unemployment are complex. Provinces like British Columbia share with Tanzania the problem of lack of secondary industry; many job opportunities are shipped abroad along with unprocessed logs and minerals. Technology has reduced the number of jobs, and changed the nature of many jobs. Our training institutions haven't always kept pace with the changes in technology. Increasingly, Canadians are looking at Tahona's option, and creating their own small businesses.

Africa needs 40,000 new jobs per day

At current rates of population growth, Africa will have to create 40,000 jobs per day for the next twenty years just to maintain the current high rate of unemployment on the continent, according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO).

But, says ILO's George Kanawaty, the potential to create these jobs exists. First, he said skills training must be offered in order to fill existing demand for such labour. He also pointed out that small-scale enterprises are more efficient in creating employment than large scale ones. For example, one job in a large-scale enterprise can require an investment of as much as $100,000 while a job can be created in a small enterprise with as little as $300 to $12,000.

*(**Africa Recovery**, May-August 1987)*

ANOTHER KIND OF MIGRATION:

Refugees

According to the World Bank, Africa, which has one-tenth of the world's population, contains one-quarter of the world's refugees. In 1985, 10 million Africans had fled their homes, some into famine centres, some into cities, many across national boundaries. Some were "environmental refugees", people fleeing land that could no longer support them. Others had fled wars, civil wars and government repression. Two of the main areas of refugee migrations are the Horn of Africa, where civil wars and famine in Ethiopia, Chad and Sudan, and gross human rights violations in Uganda have driven people from their homes; and Southern Africa, where South African repression within its borders and destabilization policies outside its borders have created a large number of refugees.

Because of the African experience, the UN has had to examine its concept of "refugee". Until now, refugees were people who needed to be fed, kept warm and legally protected until they could go home. But many of Africa's refugees won't be going home. In 1984 the UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) for the first year ever spent more than 50% of its annual African budget on "durable solutions", and expected to spend almost 60% in 1985. Instead of keeping refugees alive until they could go home, they were spending money to help refugees settle and begin to make a living where they were.

Bearing the refugee burden

The most distressing thing about the refugees in Sudan is that they are moving from one drought-stricken country into another which is even more devastated, says the Sudanese Commissioner for Refugees, Mr. Abdel Magid Elahmadi.

"We are now witnessing in Sudan a famine of unprecedented proportions for any country in recent history," he said in an interview at United Nations headquarters in New York. "Fully one half of our own people are, or soon will be, in need of food aid. So you can imagine the difficulties when over a million people from neighboring countries come to Sudan. Such numbers would be difficult to cope with for even the most developed country."

Sudan is currently home to approximately 1.4 million refugees: 820,000 from Ethiopia, 300,000 from Chad and 250,000 Ugandans.

(Africa Emergency, July 1985)

141 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Mohamed: on being a refugee in Sudan

In 1984, at the height of the Ethiopian famine, Mohamed, aged 13, lost—one after the other—his mother, father, grandfather and young sister. All were victims of famine. Mohamed, along with his three young brothers, began to walk. They walked for a week before arriving at the Sudan border where they stayed for a month before being carried by truck to a refugee camp in Sudan.

Mohamed and his brothers live in a tent supported by wooden poles and branches. Their only possessions are two beds covered with straw mats, a few clothes and a few earthenware pots for cooking.

Each day Mohamed gets up at dawn and goes to the refugee camp school in the shade of a hut. He has learned to read there. At 8:00 a.m., he comes back home to join his family and share a pancake—'injirah'—made from grain which the international community distributes every twelve days to the refugees. Later in the day he takes his brothers to the League of Red Cross Feeding Centre for milk and high protein biscuits.

While his brothers play in the camp, Mohamed goes to the sewing workshop where he is learning the trade of making clothes. He doesn't have any material and uses brown wrapping paper to practise. At the beginning of the year Mohamed did some cotton picking and earned enough money to buy a few clothes for his brothers, a big bag of grain, sandals and a bed. He is very proud of this.

*(Adapted from Williams, R, **Children & World Development**. London: UNICEF-UK / Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd., 1987)*

Many of the refugees in the Horn of Africa are fleeing both famine and war. Many of the nations at war also have famine. What is the relationship between the two? In what ways might war lead to famine? (Think about: national budgets, labour shortages, the difficulty of working in the fields.)

General Sources for Part 7: CIDA, *Development*, Winter 1987-88; Cooke, D., *Teaching Development Issues: Population Changes*. Manchester: Development Education Project, 1986; Harrison, P., *The Greening of Africa*. London: Paladin Books, 1987; *New Internationalist*, October 1987; Timberlake, L., *Africa in Crisis*. London: Earthscan, 1985; VIDEA, *Teachergram*, May 1985; Williams, R., *Children & World Development*, UNICEF-UK/ Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd., 1987; UNFPA *1987 Report*; UNFPA, *The State of the World Population, 1986*.

What are the solutions?

To War:

As we have seen in Part Two (Colonialism & After), Africa is spending more of its budget on war materials than ever before. What solutions are there to this? How can countries like Canada help, through their international influence, their aid, and their arms-sales policy?

To Famine:

How can people be helped to remain in their villages in times of drought, rather than having to leave for refugee camps?

ACTIVITIES:

1. Population— Slowing the Explosion:

In small groups, put yourself in the position of population planners for an African country. First, read "Why do African women have so many children?", pages 2 to 3. Keeping in mind the reasons why African women have so many children, discuss the steps which you think need to be taken to encourage a slowing of the population growth. Can the question of population be solved on its own? What other areas of economic and social life in your country will have to be changed in order for population growth to abate? Record your findings for class discussion. (Later, you may want to check your ideas against page 4.)

2. Population Perspectives:

Imagine this scenario: A Canadian woman travelling in Kenya meets a mother working in the fields with her nine children, one of whom is on her back. The Kenyan mother looks exhausted. The Canadian is horrified. Why does this woman foolishly keep on having children? Working in pairs or alone, recreate their conversation. (Read pages 2 and 3 first.)

3. Population and Poverty — Graphing the Relationship:

Table 1 on page 4 lists fertility rates, IMRs and the GNP per capita for selected countries. Take two African and two non-African countries and graph the relationship between these variables, using two separate graphs. (In each graph, use one axis to show the fertility rate, and the other to indicate either the GNP (in thousands) or the IMR.)

4. Youth Unemployment- The Solutions:

You are on a task-force which has been given the job of making recommendations to your town council to help solve the problem of youth unemployment. Read pages 8 - 9, and the bottom of page12, then prepare to examine the following:

- short-range ideas to have youth trained and employed in the next two or three years;
- support and security systems for those who are unemployed, or employed in the informal sector
- long-range ideas, leading to an equitable distribution of work and wealth in your community, perhaps involving some long-term changes in people's attitudes towards employment.

Divide into groups: Discuss and record your recommendations. Half of the groups will be Tanzanian, half Canadian.

General discussion: When you come back to the class with your recommendations, have a recorder take down the major recommendations from each country. What solutions are the same, for both Tanzania and Canada? What solutions are different?

5. Distribution Dilemma:

Read the information on age distribution, page 5. Government planners in Canada and Angola, in the year 2025, are going to have vastly different problems in planning social services, employment, and taxes. List some of the issues which Canadian government planners, along with Canadians, might be discussing in 2025. What are the pressures on health and social services? What solutions can you see? (Should Canadians be encouraged to have more children, in order to decrease the dependency ratio? Should immigration of young working people be encouraged?) Then list some of the different problems which Angolan planners might have in that same year.

6. Urbanization Ills:

"How 'ya gonna keep em down on the farm?"

You are a young farmer in rural Africa. You would like to stay on the farm, but you are tired of working very hard for very few returns, and you see that there are better incomes, services, and a more exciting life available in the cities. Much of this is because of "urban bias". The government of your country doesn't seem to realize just how hard rural living is. The president of your country has just announced that he is visiting your area, and you have been chosen to meet with him, to present the views of the farmers. Write down what you will say to your president on the type of rural development and changes in economic structure which will be necessary to encourage farmers to stay on their farms and raise food. (Think of: food prices, agricultural support, health, clean water and sanitation, education, and employment in nearby market towns.)

7. The Housing Crunch:

After reading pages 11 and 12, consider the question on the top of page 11. Imagine that you were about to take on the upgrading of a large squatter settlement. Draw up an outline of your plan, stating:

- who you will involve in the planning, and how;
- who will be eligible for the new scheme (How will you stop new people from flooding in?);
- how re-payment can be ensured if loans are given;
- what types of help and advice you will give;
- what kinds of building materials you will encourage;
- how you will ensure some individual control, while also maintaining a reasonable standard of building for the whole settlement.

8. Refugees:

Read pages 13 and 14. What do you think Canada can do to:

- prevent the situations of war and famine which result in refugees;
- help refugees find permanent homes where they can live fulfilling lives. (Here you may want to consider Canada's refugee policy; should Canada be accepting more refugees like Mohamed, and helping them settle in Canada?)

Part 7: POPULATION
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

Why is Africa's population skyrocketing?
Why are people migrating to the cities?
What are some of the problems caused by urbanization?
Why do people become refugees?

OVERVIEW:

Part 7 surveys the situation of rapidly rising population in Africa, asks why Africans persist in having so many children, and attempts to identify the changes which will be needed to curb population growth. The problems of urbanization—diminished food production, the strain on cities, unemployment—are examined, along with some attempts at solution. The plight of Africa's refugees is presented.

Key Concepts:

- Earth's population is rapidly growing, largely due to high fertility rates in the developing countries. Population is expected to stabilize in about 2045 A.D., at which time world population distribution will be very different from what it is now.
- While it is true that developing nations are multiplying their populations rapidly, it is equally true that a person in the industrialized world is far harder on the earth's resources than a person in a developing nation, consuming and polluting 30 times as much.
- Africa's population is the world's most rapidly growing. The reasons for large families include the use of children's labour in agriculture, security, high IMRs, and cultural factors such as achievement of power, and the low status of women.
- In order for Africans to want smaller families, there will have to be attempts to reduce poverty, improve health care, water supply, sanitation, and nutrition, and raise the status of women.
- While the Third World has a very young average age (21 years), the First World is substantially older (33 years). The dependency ratio (relation between the young-old non-workers and working-aged people) will create problems for the First world during the next century.
- Africa is experiencing an extremely high rate of urbanization.
- A variety of "push-pull" factors pull people from the country to the city; generally, incomes and services are higher in the city than the country.
- Problems associated with urbanization include a drop in food production, strain on the cities' housing, transportation, water and sanitation facilities, and a high rate of unemployment.
- Many young people in the developing world turn to employment in the "informal sector" in order to make a living in the city.
- Government attempts to deal with urbanization have included both direct and indirect means. Indirect—including rural development and increase in prices paid for food, have been more successful than direct attempts to curb access to cities.
- As well, governments and aid agencies have attempted to deal with the growing problem of squatters' settlements. The most successful schemes help the squatters improve their own housing, through giving title to the land, and loans and advice to help them upgrade their houses.
- Unemployment is a world-wide problem, which Canada shares, too. Solutions include re-training, flexibility, and creation of small businesses.
- Africa contains one-quarter of the world's refugees. Refugees are created by famine and war (which are often interlinked). Solutions include early-warning systems to get food to villages (in case of famine) and political solutions to disputes.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

The NFB has an entire collection of films on urbanization, several of which are excellent for classroom use. All of the films listed below are available rent-free from NFB, as they are CIDA-produced films. (This does not apply to the video format.)

Exploding Cities (NFB 106C 0178 641, 30 min.)

Although it was made in 1978, this film is as current today as it was eleven years ago. It gives an overall view, touching on many developing countries, of the extent and nature of the problem of providing housing and services to the rural poor who flock to the world's cities, and looks at some of the failures and successes in dealing with the problem.

Pre-Viewing Discussion:

1) Mexico City is expanding so fast that it must create the equivalent of one Vancouver every 18 months. Why do you think this is happening? Why do people flock from the country to the city when there are few jobs and less housing?
(List reasons on the board; save board list for discussion following the film.)

2) What can be done about the squatters who occupy land which they don't own, and live in ramshackle huts with no water or sanitation?
(Brainstorm; list ideas briefly on the board; save list for discussion.)

Ask students to view the film for new angles on these two questions.

Post-film Discussion:

Return to the original lists.

1) What are some of the reasons for urbanization which the students may have omitted? (small landholdings, land infertility, lack of clean water and other services, the "good life syndrome" transmitted by the transistor radio)

2) There were a variety of ways to deal with squatter settlements. Some were better than others. What were some pitfalls?

- building of overpriced housing which only the middle class can afford;
- western consultants who are unaware of local customs, use imported technology and materials, use standardized plans which aren't appropriate for everyone;
- bulldozing of squatters' homes to replace them with fewer, more expensive homes.

What seemed to be necessary to provide good housing which met people's needs?

- granting land tenure;
- loans for materials and some technical help;
- local participation in planning, and individual participation in the construction of the houses.

3) One problem which was briefly discussed in the film was this: when you inprove conditions in the city, even more people flock in than before. How do you think governments should deal with this problem? (Various residency rules will probably be suggested. Challenge students to consider the plight of those denied help because they haven't lived in the city long enough. One solution: improved rural services.)

A New Look for Naledi: Upgrading a Squatter Settlement (NFB 106C 0183 022 (film); NFB 113C 0183 022 (VHS video), 28 min.)

This involving and visually interesting film gives a close-up view of a particular squatter settlement, illustrating some of the problems and solutions in dealing with urban squatter populations. The focus is on Naledi, a squatter settlement of 10,000 people on the outskirts of Gabarone, the capital of Botswana.

Pre-viewing discussion:

1) Pretend that you are faced with this situation: 10,000 people live in piecemeal shacks on the outskirts of an African capital. The have four water taps and 20-odd latrines. There is no "infrastructure"—roads, sewage, electricity. Neither are there community services like hospitals or schools. The government has tried simply moving all these people out, but this hasn't worked; they have left their homes in the countryside, and have nowhere else to go. You are the urban planner who has been hired by the government to improve the hous-

continued

ing and services of this settlement, with the help of a grant from CIDA. What steps will you take?

(During this discussion, write down suggestions on the board (keep this board list for after the film),and raise questions on each:
- Building roads — What about homes which are in the way? How could you decide where the roads should go if the homes are scattered all over?
- Upgrading houses — What is needed to do this? (credit, technical advice, low-cost materials, land tenure)
- Installing water/electrical/sewage systems — What level of services is appropriate? Should each house get its own running water? flush toilet? What factors do you have to consider here? (primarily money)

2) In the film, one of the project coordinators points out that the process of building a community is not just building houses; it involves many disciplines. As you watch the film, make a note of the things that the planners had to think about other than the construction of houses and other buildings.

Post-film Discussion:
1) Go back over the board list developed prior to viewing the film. What steps did the planners in the film take, which the students hadn't previously considered?

2) How would the class rate this project in terms of the following criteria:
- involving the "grassroots"— the people affected— in the planning and execution of the project
- reaching the very poor
- using locally-available materials
- cost-effectiveness

What improvements could they suggest?

Follow-up Activity:
You are a squatter, living in a ramshackle hut in Naledi. Write a brief report of the process which you went through in order to end up with a new home. You may also want to comment on other important improvements in your community, and your ideas for future community directions.

Mobility (NFB 106C 0186 546; NFB 113C 0186 546 (VHS), 37 min.)
By the year 2,000, the Third World is expected to have twenty cities of over 10 million. This film surveys the problem of providing transportation systems for these huge, widespread populations, in which the poor often live on the furthest outskirts. Nairobi looks at upgrading and licencing its informal public vehicles. Bombay maintains a huge, efficient bus system; Bankok installs a bus lane, and Sao Paulo a system of bus convoys. The whole problem of the priority given to needs of the car-driving middle-class, contrasted with the needs of the urban poor, is examined in the example of the Indian state of Kerala, where the Trivandrum city planners have chosen a different option, in favour of the poor. This film raises a lot of interesting questions, not just about transportation, but about the values which drive city planners.

Pre-Viewing Suggestion: Students might be asked to consider the following:

"It is well-known that traffic in New York goes slower at rush hour than a horse-and-buggy at the turn of the century."

(Pradervand, Development Education, Bern, 1982)

and add to it their own experience of city traffic. The question, "How can we keep cars from taking over the cities?" would lead well into this film. Students could be asked to find out what we could learn from the Third World about dealing with this problem.

Development Without Tears (NFB 106C 0178 549, 26 min.)
This film gives a fairly comprehensive view of different countries struggling to implement rural development schemes to keep rural people from flocking to the cities. Projects in India, the Gambia and Jamaica are briefly covered; more in-depth coverage is given the Tanzanian Ujaama Villages set up in the late 1960s, the Cuban rural settlement system, and China's rural development policy. In all of these cases, priority was given to providing housing and services to settlements of rural people.

What on Earth are We Doing (NFB 106C 017 608, 12 min.)
See Part 1, page 16 for a discription of this film, which focuses largely on problems of urbanization.

What Rights Should Everyone Have?

THE TIMES ARE A CHANGIN'!
NOW MY DAD PLOUGHS THE FIELDS WITH A TRACTOR...
MY UNCLES HAVE GONE TO WORK IN THE FACTORY...
AND I CAN GO TO SCHOOL UNTIL I'M 18!
DEVELOPMENT SURE IS A LIBERATING EXPERIENCE!

Part 8

THE HUMAN FACTOR:

Human Rights, Women, & Education

contents

Part 8: The Human Factor:

Human Rights, Women, & Education

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Human Rights: What Are They? 1

Africa, the Military, and Human Rights 2

Women and Human Rights:
- Women & the World of Work:
  - An Overview 3
  - African Women Farmers 4
  - Being a Female Urban Worker 5-8
  - What Changes Are Needed? 6-7
  - Women Organizing for Change 7-8
- Women & Politics 8
- Women & Health 8-9
- Women & Education 9-10

Education 10-11

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 12-13

TEACHER NOTES 13

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 14

THE HUMAN FACTOR:

Human Rights, Women, & Education

HUMAN RIGHTS: What Are They?

THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

In 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The nations which discussed and adopted this declaration were trying to answer this question:

What basic rights are necessary for people to live as full human beings?

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights has 30 articles, or sections. Here are some of the main ones:

Article 3: Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 5: No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 7: All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law....

Article 16: Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

Article 21: (1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.
(2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

Article 22: Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international cooperation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23: Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

Article 25: (1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

Article 26: (1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental states. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(Universal Declaration of Human Rights, United Nations Office of Public Information)

Human rights are

- **political** (freedom from torture, right to a fair trial)
- **economic** (health, education, work).

How do you think Africa stacks up on economic human rights? What are some of the reasons why it's hard for African countries to fulfil Article 25?
What about political human rights?

Africa, the Military, and Human Rights:

Two-thirds of the countries of Africa have military-controlled governments. It is important to realize that not all military governments are equal when it comes to their human rights records. Burkina Faso, for instance, which in 1983 had a military coup of junior officers lead by Thomas Sankara, experienced considerably more participation, particularly by rural people, than ever before. Nevertheless, the human rights records of military governments are generally poor.

1987

Out of 45 African governments:

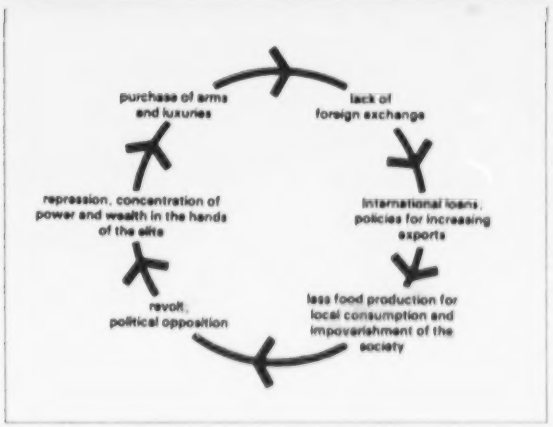
- **29 were military governments**—All but one used some degree of violence against citizens (torture, brutality, disappearances, and political killings).
- **16 were civilian governments**—10 used violence against citizens.

(Sivard, World Military and Social Expenditures, 1987-88)

Putting the Lid on Revolt

Look at this diagram. How does it work? Where will it lead?

Cycle of Militarism / Poverty


purchase of arms and luxuries
lack of foreign exchange
repression, concentration of power and wealth in the hands of the elite
international loans, policies for increasing exports
revolt, political opposition
less food production for local consumption and impoverishment of the society

*Source: **Bombs for Breakfast**. London: Committee on Poverty & the Arms Trade*

In Part 2: Colonialism & Development, we examined the role of colonialism in the creation of an elite—a class of wealthy people who are unconcerned with the poor in their countries. How are colonialism, militarism, and abuse of human rights all linked?

CLOSE-UP 1: NIGERIA: A Military Government

In 1988:

★ The Government disbands the National Trade Union Council, the National Students Union and the National University Professors Union.

★ 30 universities are temporarily closed.

★ Journalists are detained, magazines seized.

★ Politicians are warned that they will be disqualified from taking part in the 1992 elections if they make political statements.

(Information from J. Brooke, "Nigeria's nimble president keeps wary eye on military, The Globe and Mail, August 1988)

CLOSE-UP 2: KENYA: A Civilian Government

The government of Daniel arap Moi has come under increasing criticism from the international human rights organization Amnesty International for alleged incidents of political imprisonment and torture.

In his Independence Day speech in December 1987, President Moi denounced human rights organizations which "interfere with our internal affairs," and singled out Amnesty members for special treatment. "If any of them is found here, I will have him arrested. Amnesty International, I say to hell."

(Information from Update, Africa Report, March-April 1988)

Is Africa the only continent where there is this type of political abuse of human rights? Can you think of any examples of human rights abuse in North America?

How can problems of human rights abuse be overcome?

In the rest of Part 8, we'll look at other questions which are related to human rights.

- Why is it that half of Africa's population—women—seem to have fewer human rights than the other half?
- How is Africa doing in reaching the goal of education for all?

"Women are half the world's adult population; they comprise one-third of the paid labour force, and they actually perform two-thirds of the world's working hours. For this, they earn one-tenth of the world's income, but they own only one per cent of the world's property."

(From official papers of the United Nations' Mid-Decade Conference in Copenhagen, 1980)

"Woman of Africa
Sweeper
Smearing floors and walls
With cow dung and black soil
Cook, aya, the baby on your back
Washer of dishes
Planting, weeding, harvesting
Storekeeper, builder
Runner of errands
Cart, lorry, donkey
Woman of Africa
What are you not?"

Song of Ocol
Okot B'Pitek (Ugandan poet)

Women and the World of Work

Inequities show it's still a man's world

By Ronald Farquhar (Reuter)

GENEVA — Whether in offices, factories or down on the farm, in industrial countries or poor agrarian states, most women work outside the home. They find that it is still a man's world.

Be they New York executives, European computer clerks or drudges in the fields of the Third World, women, according to a Maoist adage, "hold up half the sky" — for about two-thirds of what men get for holding up the other half, says the International Labour Organization.

That is the global average. In communist Eastern Europe, men earn 20 to 30 percent more for the same jobs. In the Third World and Japan, males can earn twice as much.

Data gathered by the ILO, a United Nations agency, indicates that women are also more likely to get fired than men. The ILO says this is often because women have traditionally performed the tasks most easily taken over by word processors and other new technology....

The ILO says roughly two-thirds of Third World women workers are engaged in agriculture. Their plight has deteriorated because of increasing landlessness—particularly in Latin America—and migration of men to seek work in cities.

Third World women who leave the land tend to find only low-paid and precarious jobs, the ILO's 1987 World Labour Report says. Many young women in Asia work up to 60 hours a week making electronic goods.

(Calgary Herald, March 17/88)

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Being a Female Farmer

In Africa, your average woman worker is a farmer. And, though her life has always been hard, it is becoming even harder.

- ✦ More men are leaving the farms to look for paid work in the cities, leaving their wives to raise the children and the foodcrops alone.
- ✦ Deforestation means that women have to go farther and farther to collect firewood. In rural Kenya some women spend 20 to 24 hours a week collecting firewood.
- ✦ Soil erosion and depletion has meant that more soil has to be cultivated to grow enough food.
- ✦ Cash crops are opposed by most African women, who would prefer to use the land for food crops. But cash crops are on the rise. Usually, this means that women do most of the work, and the husbands get the money.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

CLOSE-UP 1
Dina (from Kenya)

I'm Dina Mukhwane and I'm 51 years old. I have my own house and my own farm. And I've provided for my ten children all by myself since my husband left me. He went away to work in the city and I haven't seen him for nine years. It has been a very hard struggle but I am happy now.

There are many women like me in Kenya. We are wives but we feel like widows because our husbands are away. Men used to build the houses for their families. And they made sure there was always enough food to eat. But now all they care about is money and all they talk about is growing sugar cane. And there are tractors everywhere. Ever since the sugar factory was built they've been trying to persuade people to grow sugar cane on their land.

Almost every farmer signed a contract with the factory and the factory's tractors were sent to plough their land that very same day. I was lucky. But most women had no choice. It's the husband who decides. She can't complain because the land belongs to him. So the women just had to watch and say nothing while the tractors ploughed over their maize fields.

After the tractors had gone, that was when the real work started. We didn't realize that sugar cane would need so much weeding. It has to be weeded five times before it's harvested. And weeding is a woman's duty. The men help sometimes. But it's the woman who feels ashamed if the farm is not weeded properly. Teams of men were sent from the factory to harvest all the cane in the village. These men work for the sugar factory, like the men who drove the tractors that ploughed our land.

The men get paid for doing this work. But the women, no one pays us for doing the weeding. When men have money in their pockets all they want to do is drink beer and go with prostitutes. There are some good husbands but most of them just forget about their wives and families waiting for them at home. I think men should give to their wives a portion of the land that is growing sugar cane. Then the women could grow what they want on that land. And make sure the family always has enough of the things that it needs.

(From the film Man-Made Famine, quoted in "Man-Made Famine", Africa Recovery, May-August 1987)

What does Dina's experience show us about the problems of rural African women?

- **Who owns the land?**
- **How is the work divided between men and women?**
- **Who gets paid for work, who doesn't? Why?**
- **Who has responsibility for feeding the family?**
- **How has cash cropping benefited the women in Dina's village? Hurt them?**

CLOSE-UP 2
Zenabou, Burkina Faso

I am Zenabou Bambara. I'm twenty-eight years old and I have four children. The planting season is a hard time for women in our family. My husband doesn't mind doing his share of work on the land. But it is not in a man's nature to help the women with our other work. He would be too ashamed. He believes that our work is beneath him.

[Husband: It's true. Women do work more than men. They work with us in the fields. Then they have to grind millet, cook porridge and sauce, fetch water and firewood. I can see for myself that they are tired, that they work too hard. But tradition stops us from helping them.]

Zenabou: Our family has all the land we need. But there's never enough time to cultivate it all properly. These fields are about nine miles from the house and the men and women work on them together. But we women have to cultivate the rest of our land without any help from the men. My husband is very strict and he always makes sure that the planting and weeding in these fields is finished first. That means the other fields are never planted in time for the rain. Women have to walk to and from the fields. And it takes even longer on the days we collect firewood. And yet it's the men in the village who mostly have bicycles.

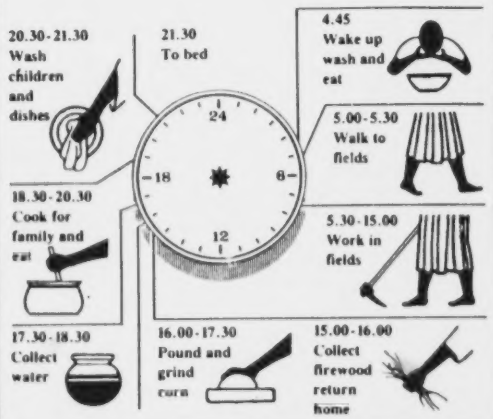
(Man-Made Famine, Ibid.)

- **What are the "women's tasks" which Zenabou must do without the help of her husband?**
- **Why does her husband feel that certain work is "beneath him"?**
- **The double workload of women like Zenabou—work outside the home, plus heavy household work—is sometimes called the "double day". How many Canadian women have a "double day"? Compare the workload of an average Canadian woman with that of Zenabou. How is it the same? different? Are things changing?**

Women and work

A WOMAN'S WORK IS NEVER DONE

A day in the life of a typical rural African woman



WOMEN'S WORK IS NOT RECOGNIZED

National statistics for the economically active usually omit women's work in the subsistence sector yet:

In Bangladesh, 90% of the female population is engaged in agriculture

In Africa 60-80% of all agricultural work is done by women

Rural women in the developing countries as a whole account for at least 50% of food production

WHO PROVIDES FOR THE FAMILY?

In 1972 it was estimated that:

IN EGYPT
264,000 families lived on the earnings of women

IN KENYA
525,000 rural households were headed by women

IN BOTSWANA
one-third of all households were headed by women

R. Williams. Children & World Development. London: UNICEF-UK/ Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd., 1987.

✱ Over 40 percent of households in Kenya, Botswana, Ghana and Sierra Leone are headed by women. *(Global Pages, Aug/Sept 85)*

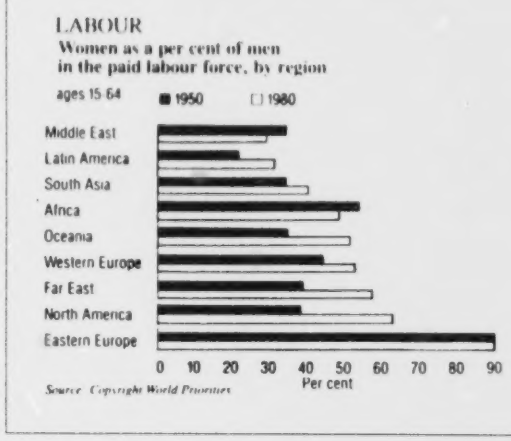
Being a Female Urban Worker

Women the world over are increasingly moving into the paid workforce.

WOMEN AT WORK

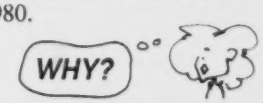
- 675 million women are currently at work or seeking work in the labour market.
- Women make up just over one-third of the total labour force.
- Half of the women between the ages of 15 and 64 are engaged in paid work.
- Since 1950, the number of women working has increased dramatically.

Women in the Workplace



R. Williams. Children & World Development. Ibid.

Sub-Saharan Africa is out of sync. In this region, the percentage of women in paid work has **fallen** one per cent between 1950 and 1980.



Think about Africa's worsening economic situation. When the factories closed for lack of spare parts and foreign capital, who was the first to be laid off?

Question: What happened to the women who lost their jobs? Did they go home and starve?

Answer: They probably took whatever they could get—jobs like selling oranges on the streets or doing people's laundry. Because these jobs are in the "informal sector", they are not counted in the official statistics. Because so many of Africa's women—and women in the developing world as a whole—work in the informal sector, we need to be careful when we look at look at the statistics. Much of women's work remains "invisible" in employment statistics, and thus in government planning.

Cecelia and Mohammed, of Nigeria

Cecelia and Mohammed have just graduated from secondary school, and are entering the job market. What are their chances of success?

- Cecelia will find it harder to get a job. In almost all countries, unemployment rates are higher among women than men. If she does land a job, she can expect to be among the first laid off if recession leads to high unemployment.
- Mohammed has a much better chance of landing a job with opportunities for advancement into management than does Cecelia; women tend to cluster into low-paying service and office jobs.
- Even if Mohammed and Cecelia land similar jobs, Cecelia might find that she is paid less than Mohammed. In 1982, on a world scale, a woman working in manufacturing made 73 cents for every dollar earned by a man.

And in Canada...

"Women are clustered in a pink ghetto of low-paying clerical jobs while men enjoy the view from executive suites."

This is the message of the first annual report on employment equity in federally regulated workplaces, released in December 1988. Based on reports of the 1987 employment practices of 373 companies, the report showed that:

- Women , on average, earned 70% as much as men.
- More than 58% of full-time female workers were paid less than $25,000 a year compared with only 16% of men.
- In banking, which had the largest gender gap in wages, women earned an average wage of $22,368 while men earned almost $40,000.

(Information from Times-Colonist, December 23, 1988)

What changes are needed?

★ **the "double day":** What needs to change?

★ **technology:** What new technologies will benefit rural women? (Think about carrying water and heavy loads, working in the field with a pointed stick, grinding up maize.)

Who controls the technology? Too often, the control and maintenance of technology has been in the hands of men. CIDA, Canada's International Development Agency, is now starting to realize this.

"The responsibility for drawing water, for gathering water, for carrying water falls to women. Yet very often in the '70s when we put a pump in a village, the pump was put where the men said the pump should go and the men were trained in how to maintain it.

When the pumps broke down the men often did not fix them because they had no vested interest in doing so.

Had we trained the women in machine maintenance, had we asked them where the pump should go, had we asked them (at what height) to place the handle, there might have been a good design of that project and the pump would have stayed maintained."

(CIDA Officer Isla Paterson, quoted in T.Gilbert, "Women make Third World project work," Calgary Herald, March 17/88)

CIDA's present policy ensures that Women in Development (WID) will be considered in every project.

★ **Credit: How to get started**
Women in both the developed and developing world find it hard to get credit, especially if they are poor. Women in the country need credit to buy tools, fertilizer, and livestock; women in the cities need credit to start small business ventures.

★ **Changed government policies:**
What changes do rural women need? (What kind of agricultural help and advice would be useful? How can the problem of land ownership be solved? When the colonial administrators registered the land and its owners, they forgot about the women.)

★ **Change for women workers in the cities:** (What changes do African women need? Canadian women?)

CLOSE-UP on CREDIT
Women's World Banking

Who is going to guarantee loans to women when, in total, they own only one per cent of the world's property. Hasn't it been long established that you only lend to the rich?

Michaela Walsh wanted to find a solution to this problem. A Wall Street broker for 20 years, she founded Women's World Banking (WWB) in the Netherlands—an independent financial institution funded by various governments, organizations and individuals, designed to guarantee loans.

In Kenya, near Nairobi, about 40 women operate a bakery that was granted a loan of up to U.S. $3,125 to buy an oven, utensils, and fuelwood. WWB guaranteed 50 per cent of the loan, the Kenya Women's Finance Trust, WWB's local affiliate, guaranteed 25 per cent. The other 25 per cent was taken on by Barclay's Bank, the lender. Before the credit was granted, the Kenya Women's Finance Trust evaluated the project and required the women to take a month's training. The bakery is now going well and the bakers are repaying the bank at market interest rates.

Without Women's World Banking, this enterprise would never have seen the light of day; these women would not have been eligible to receive a standard loan.

Canada last year offered a contribution of $3 million to WWB, spread over five years.

(C. Williams, "Where credit is due: Women's World Banking", Development, Spring 1987)

Signs of Hope

Women are increasingly working together to change their lot—to share technology, to work on conservation projects, to initiate business ventures, and to say "no" when development threatens to affect them and their families in a negative way.

WOMEN ORGANIZING IN AFRICA...

Growing Cooperation:
Gambian women farmers retain land rights

The battle of the sexes took an unusual turn when some women farmers in the Gambia refused to lease their land to an irrigation project on the grounds that men would benefit from it. Other women had lost control of land after similar projects in the same region. But the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) stepped in. It drew up rules on land distribution, so protecting women's rights. The women agreed to lease their land to the project.

Eight women and seven men formed a committee to ensure a fair distribution of plots. But the men got upset because there were women on such an important committee. It was unheard of to have women policy-makers in this strict Islamic community. So the men boycotted the project, demanding that no women should serve on the committee.

The women saw that valuable planting time was being lost, so decided to launch the project without their male counterparts. Again IFAD intervened, bringing in a mediator. Eventually the men agreed to put aside their objections and to work with the women.

The improvements happened fast. Almost 1,500 hectares of swampland was immediately drained, flood embankments were set up and an irrigation system installed. In a short time the rice harvest rose from about one ton per hectare to 7.5 tons per hectare, overtaking the international standard of 4.5 tons per hectare. Female farmers were given better credit for seed, fertilizers, thrashers and machines for land levelling and irrigation. And there has been a visible improvement in their living standards. Women tillers now have enough money to take their children to the hospital when they are sick and to buy clothes and other essential items.

(K. Musa, "Growing Cooperation," New Internationalist, March 1986)

AND ELSEWHERE...

The Iceland Home-strike

Recently tens of thousands of Icelandic women walked off their jobs for 24 hours to protest against male privilege. Businessmen could not place telephone calls because most of Iceland's telephone operators had joined their sisters on protest lines chanting, "We dare! We can! We will!" The government was temporarily leaderless because President Vigdis Finnbogadottir had stayed away from her office to demonstrate solidarity with the striking women. But for the men, the worst problem was starting the day. Most women refused to make the morning meal. Restaurants got jammed because so many men went to them for breakfast.

The disruption was intended to demonstrate that Iceland, a tiny country of 240,000, could not function without its women. Why make this rather obvious point? Because women in Iceland earn 40 per cent less than men on average. A male journalist seeking more data on the wage disparity ran into the Icelandic version of Catch-22. "I'm sorry," said a female employee at the Iceland Information Office, "I can't speak to you. I'm on strike."

(New Internationalist, April 1986)

WOMEN and POLITICS:

"Although they comprise 50 percent of the world's enfranchised population, women hold no more than 10 percent of the seats in national legislatures."

"In one government in three there are no women in the executive council which represents the highest decision-making body of the country; in those cabinets where women are included, there is usually only one woman."
(Ruth Sivard, Women...a world survey. Washington:World Priorities, 1985)

Canada recently had a federal election in which 39 women, out of a total of 295 seats, were elected. That's 13.2 per cent, which is a better-than-average figure as the world goes, but which still leaves room for improvement. In Sub-Saharan Africa, 6 per cent of legislative seats, on average, are held by women.

WOMEN IN GOVERNMENT

REGION	% in Legislature	% in Executive Cabinet
N.& S. America	9	9
Europe	8	2
Asia	7	3
Oceania	1	0
Africa	5	6
(Sub-Saharan Africa)	6	8

(Sivard, Women...a World Survey)

WOMEN and HEALTH

"As part of their normal domestic role women everywhere... provide more health care than all the world's health services put together."
(R. Williams, Children and World Development. UNICEF-UK, 1987)

It is very important for the development of any nation to keep its women healthy. It is the women who are the cooks and feeders of children, the fetchers of water and gatherers of wood, the custodians of cleanliness and hygiene, the teachers of healthy habits, the bearers of babies, and the carers for the sick, disabled and old. The rest of the population depends on the women for their health.

Primary health care recognizes the important role of women in health. By teaching the mothers and wives about simple preventative measures like water protection, sanitation and nutrition, you educate the whole family.

Yet...

in much of the world, women are more likely than men to be malnourished, poor, and illiterate, to carry a heavier workload, and to have less access to medical facilities. In Africa, where food is often scarce, the woman is often the last to eat.

"African women are always fatigued. They are constantly cooking, washing, cleaning, caring for their husbands. At the same time, they are pregnant. And by the time they start to have their fifth child, they are at great risk of losing their baby or their own life. In Africa, the number one killer of fertile women is pregnancy and childbirth."

(Esther Boohene, head of Zimbabwe's National Family Planning Council, quoted in L. Timberlake, ***Only One Earth***. BBC Books/Earthscan, 1987)

How can the health of Third World women be improved? (Location and type of health services? Family planning facilities? Technologies?)

Average waiting time at a W. African clinic: 2 hrs. 42 min.

African women, with their heavy workload and many responsibilities, don't have time to go to the hospital or to health clinics. Nearly 75 per cent of African women give birth to their babies at home, assisted only by traditional birth attendants or female relatives.

In some parts of Africa, there are as many as 1,000 maternal deaths per 100,000 births. (Compare: India: 370 deaths per 100,000 births; Scandinavia: 8 deaths per 100,000 births).

WOMEN and EDUCATION

"There is no greater threat to women's health and family health than ignorance; and the best remedy for that is education."

(Pan American Health Organization, 1984)

Literacy: In 1980, 29 countries reported that over 80 percent of their women citizens were illiterate.
The Third World literacy ratio:
Women: 50% are literate
Men: 68% are literate.

Going to School: In 1985, according to UNESCO, 300 million more girls were enrolled in the world's schools and universities than in 1950. However, there are still more boys than girls in school, particularly in the levels past primary school. At the university level in the Third World men outnumber women almost two to one.

Going to School: (Number of girls for 100 boys)

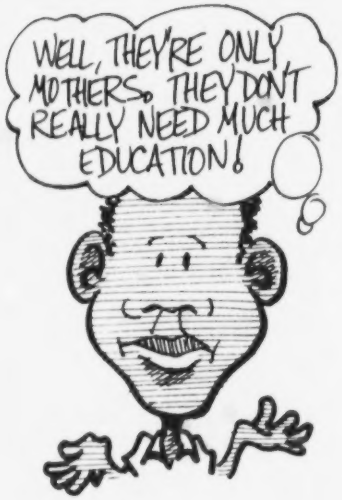
COUNTRY	Primary		Secondary	
	1965	1985	1970	1985
Ethiopia	38	64	32	64
Malawi		77	39	48
Zaire	48	72	26	40
Tanzania	60	99	38	58
Togo	42	63	26	32
Ghana	71	78	36	62
Zimbabwe		94	63	68
Canada	94	93	95	95
Denmark	96	96	102	105

(Source: World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

★ Girls are more helpful at home. In Rwanda, mothers with daughters to help them are relieved of 40 per cent of the domestic work, leaving them more time to work in the fields. Those girls who do get to attend school have a higher rate of absenteeism than boys.

★ Girls aren't expected to get as good a job when they graduate. Parents realize that there is discrimination in the workplace.

★ Cultural factors—the place of women, the feeling that co-education isn't appropriate for teenaged girls—also play a part.



WHY READING KEEPS CHILDREN ALIVE

In the mid 1970s, Professor Iram Oruboloye and Professor John Caldwell completed a remarkable piece of research in two villages of Eastern Nigeria. The object of their study was to see if public health services reduced infant deaths.

In one of the villages, clinics were conveniently located and frequently used. In the other, there were no public health services within a manageable distance. Apart from this one significant difference, the two villages were broadly similar in the levels of food supply and access to water and sanitation. The results showed that the use of public health clinics did indeed reduce the rate of infant deaths. But it also showed something less obvious.

In the 'healthy' village, a baby born to an illiterate woman was found to be two-and-a half times more likely to die in childhood than a baby born to a mother who had been to school. When the data from the village without health services was examined, the effect of the mother's education was seen to be even more pronounced. There, the child of an educated woman was found to be four times more likely to survive.

Surveys in at least 25 different nations over the last quarter of a century have all come to the conclusion that child health improves with the level of maternal education. But it had previously been assumed that the mother's educational level was simply an indicator of her social and economic position and that it was this, rather than the provision of education itself, that determined her child's well-being. What this research in Nigeria showed is that a mother's level of education is in fact a powerful lever in its own right for raising the level of child health.

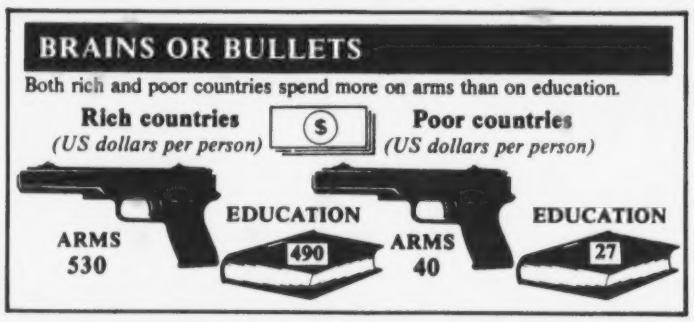
(Peter Adamson, New Internationalist, October 1986, p. 18-19)

Why does a mother's education lead to better health for her children? (Think of attitudes to nutrition & hygiene, health, family planning.)

EDUCATION

"Of the 1,500 million children in the developing world, 715 million are without places in school. If they all held hands they could encircle the earth four times."

(New Internationalist, February 1988)



New Internationalist

Although rates of enrolment have increased markedly in the last 20 years in developing countries, there is still room for improvement. In the 1980s in the Third World

- fewer than two-thirds of children of primary school age are enrolled in school;
- only slightly more than a third of 12-17 year olds and about 9 per cent of those in the 18-23 group are in school;
- there are high rates of dropout and repetition, especially in rural areas. Only half of those entering primary school in the South complete as many as four years.

EDUCATION IN AFRICA: Percentage enrolled in education*

	Primary		Secondary		Post-Sec.	
	1965	1985	1965	1985	1965	1985
Ethiopia	11	36	2	12	0	1
Malawi	44	62	2	4	0	1
Zaire	70	98	5	57	0	2
Tanzania	32	72	2	3	0	0
Ghana	69	66	13	39	1	2
Zimbabwe	110	131	6	43	0	3
Canada	105	105	56	103	26	55
Denmark	98	98	83	103	14	29

*When the figure is over 100%, it is because people outside the "normal" age-group for these years—6 to 11 years—are included.

(Source: World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

What difference would illiteracy have in your life? How would it affect your work? health and safety? social life?

Bright Spots:

LITERACY ON A SHOESTRING BUDGET: Burkina Faso

Burkina Faso is one of the world's poorest countries. However, since its revolution in 1983, it has shown great strides in health, conservation, and literacy.

Burkina Faso had some of the lowest literacy levels in Africa: only one out of every 10 citizens could read and write any language. In February 1986 project **"Alpha Commando"** was launched from 1,000 literacy centres throughout the country. This programme targeted 36,000 leaders of rural organizations such as Committees for the Defence of the Revolution [the equivalent to village councils], credit unions and cereal banks. Materials were produced in nine of the major national languages, and focused on practical skills such as malaria prevention and new methods of soil conservation....

Learning from the experience and short-comings of the Alpha Commando, the Government is now moving towards another mass campaign. In January 1987 a pilot project in the village of Nomgaana gave 48 villagers (half of them women) an eight-week intensive course in literacy. This was followed by four further weeks which trained them to pass on these new skills to other villagers. And the method has now been adopted nationally: literacy instructors are trained by a core of part-time teachers based permanently in the countryside.

(Daouda Api, "The Magic Word", New Internationalist, February/ 1988)

LOST FOR WORDS

Of the world's 3,223 million adults, 893 million cannot read or write.[3]

Some of these people have never had any opportunity to learn to read and write. The elderly and women are most often left out of education. Others may have been part of a mass literacy campaign which was imported without regard to the language, needs or interests of the people. The impact of such campaigns is brief.

Literate people aged over 15 years

Industrialized countries	**98**
China & other East Asia	**71**
South Asia	**44**
Africa	**46**
Central & South America	**83**
Southeast Asia	**79**
West Asia	**59**

The literacy campaign in Burkina Faso used:

- content consisting of practical, useful material

(Is this important? Would it be easier to learn to read if the material is of immediate interest?)

- indigenous languages: (What are the advantages of learning to read in your own language? Any disadvantages?)
- a pyramid structure—people are taught, and go on to teach others.

(What are the advantages and disadvantages of this approach?)

ACTIVITIES:

1. Political Human Rights-- Human Rights in Zenbiloo:

Zenbiloo (a fictional African nation)
Statistics:

GNP per capita:	$180
IMR	200
Income Distribution:	Top 10% of population receives 42% of GNP; Bottom 20% of population receives 4% of GNP.
Educational Spending:	3% of GNP
Military Spending:	8.5% of GNP
Type of government:	Military junta

Divide the class into groups, each of which takes on one of the following roles:

The Generals
Law & Order must be maintained!
You are here to protect the status quo, including the "perks"—large cars and houses—which you and your friends enjoy. Your large foreign debt has forced you into cutting out all food subsidies, and you are increasing taxes in order to repay the debt. At the same time, you are negotiating a new loan for arms purchases, which are needed to keep the lid on the discontented poor, incited by a few "hot-headed students" into protest.

The Students
Freedom for All!
You are opposed to repressive military rule, and are prepared to mobilize the urban workers in a series of street protests.

The Farmers
Our children are hungry!
The government has urged you to plant your fields in peanuts for export, but your soil is eroding, and you don't have enough land for food. You decide to leave the farm and go to the city to seek work.

International Bankers
$$$PROFIT$$$
You are willing to lend money, providing a 'stable political environment' is maintained.

Carefully examine the figure on page 2, entitled "Cycle of Militarism/Poverty". Beginning at the point "lack of foreign exchange", go step by step, with the whole class, through the entire cycle of militarization and underdevelopment. At each stage, get representatives from each group to say how they would be affected, and what they would do. Notice the increased levels of revolt and repression. What happens to human rights as the spiral progresses?

2. African Women Farmers:

Read the information on African women farmers, pages 3 to 5, then complete one of the following projects:

a) Write a short story entitled "An African Woman", which shows the typical day of an African woman farmer.

b) Write a short essay on the changes which will be necessary to bring the lives of women like Dina and Zenabou in line with the universal declaration of human rights, and to ensure a more equal distribution of work and responsibility between women and men.

c) In a small group, write and perform a skit showing some of the difficulties faced by Africa's women farmers.

3. Unjust Structures:

"Today, women in Canada understand more than ever before what we have in common with the women of the Third World. We understand that **women everywhere are affected by the same unjust structures and relationships,** even though we may experience them differently."
(Sherry Galey, MATCH [A Canadian women's organization working with women in the Third World], quoted in M. Cornellier, Match, Development, Spring 1987)

Read ***Women of Africa***, pages 3 to 10. What are the similarities between African and North American women? The differences? Write an essay agreeing or disagreeing with this statement:

"Women everywhere are affected by the same unjust structures and relationships."

4. Women and Human Rights:

Read the articles from the ***Universal Declaration of Human Rights*** (p. 1) and ***Women of Africa***, pages 3 to 10. Prepare to debate for or against the following resolution:

Be it resolved that one half of the earth's population—women—are routinely deprived of their political and economic human rights.

5. Education:

You are the Minister of Education of a very poor African country, whose literacy rate is 42 per cent. Your country has seven major languages, plus English, which many villagers have never learned to speak. Write up a plan, to present to parliament, to increase the literacy rate to 85 per cent within two years. Your plan must be very low-cost. (Read EDUCATION, pages 10 to 11.)

Part 8: THE HUMAN FACTOR:

Human Rights, Women, & Education

Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

What basic rights should all people have?
Are women disadvantaged in receiving basic human rights?
Is education a human right? Who doesn't have it?

OVERVIEW:

Part 8 attempts to link several issues: human rights (defined, according to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as both political and economic in nature), women (who in most areas receive fewer human rights than men), and education (a basic human right which many Africans don't have).

Key Concepts:

- The UN has a list of rights basic to all people. These fall into 2 general categories: political and economic.
- Africa, with its high proportion of military governments, and its rich-poor disparity, has a poor record in political human rights, and—as seen in preceding sections—economic human rights are a problem, too.
- Most of the world's women experience some inequity, particularly in the field of work and division of household labour.
- In Africa, the women farmers experience enormous difficulties. However, urban women also face inequities in obtaining and holding jobs.
- In order to bring about fairness in the workplace, changes are needed in the areas of household work, provision of technology, credit, and government policies. In both the First and Third worlds, women are increasingly organizing to improve their working lives.
- Women are under-represented politically in Africa and the world.
- In Africa, women also receive less than their share of health care and education.
- Education is a basic human right which is denied many Africans—both men and women.

Information Sources for Part 8: **Global Pages** August/September 1985; **New Internationalist** February 1988 & March 1988; O'Neil, Maureen, "Forward-Looking Strategies: The UN World Conference on Women", **Canadian Women Studies**, Spring/Summer 1986; Sivard, Ruth. **Women...a World Survey**. Washington: World Priorities, 1985. Williams, R. **Children & World Development**. London: Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd. 1987.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES

On Education:

Azzel (NFB 106C 0179 188, 29 min.)

Azzel is the name of one of the first boarding schools for nomads—in this case, the Tuareg people—established in northern Niger. The children here must leave behind their old language, customs, foods and families, and settle into a whole new way of life. The film raises interesting questions about the relationship between education and culture.

Pre-viewing Suggestion:
In the T.V. series "Only One Earth", Dr. Walter Lusigi, a Kenyan ecologist who works with the Kenyan Rendille people, who are nomads, has this to say about education:

"As a result of inappropriate education, pastoralism is increasingly becoming an endangered way of life. The pupils who finish school are increasingly unsuited for living in the arid areas and never go back to pastoralism."

(Timberlake, **Only One Earth**, London, BBC Books, 1987)

Ask the students to watch the film with this quotation in mind: In what ways is the education at Azzel appropriate? inappropriate? For what lives are these children being prepared? (nomadic? town?)

*Illustration: Louise Bourbonnais, CIDA, **Insight**, 1988*

Post-viewing discussion:
On the board, write 3 headings: appropriate for nomadic life/ appropriate for settled life/ inappropriate. Where did the education, as viewed in the film, fit? (French instruction, maths, agriculture, different lifestyle). How might this education serve to separate these children from their lifestyle, and make them want to settle down? (A parallel Canadian issue is the residential schools in which many Canadian native Indians were educated until recently. How did the different language, culture, way of teaching, and food contribute to separating these children from their own culture?)

Can the students think of any ways the education system at Azzel could become more appropriate to a nomadic existence?

On Women:

Speaking of Nairobi (NFB 106C 0186 531; 113C 0186 531—VHS, 56 min.)

Documenting the End-of-Decade Women's Conference in 1985 in Nairobi, this film contains many interesting perspectives on the links between feminism, peace and development. Unfortunately, the film is long and rambling, and would be somewhat difficult to use as a classroom resource.

Women -- All One Nation (28 min., available as slide-tape or video)

Put out by the Canadian NGO MATCH, this video gives a good overview of some of the problems faced by women the world over. It can be borrowed for a rental of $12.00, which includes shipping. Contact:

MATCH International Centre,
200 Elgin St., #1102,
Ottawa, Ontario
K2P 1L5
(613) 238-1312

With These Hands
Man-Made Famine

Two videos on women and food production in Africa. See information in Part 5: Food, Water & Health, p. 23.

The Learner Centre nearest you will have information on other videos on human rights, women, and education. See the list of Learner Centres, Part 10, pages 12 to 13.

Can Government Policies Make a Difference?

Part 9

SUDAN & ZIMBABWE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

contents

Part 9: Sudan & Zimbabwe

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Sudan:

- Sudan: Overview 1
- The Historical Roots of Crisis 2
- The Colonial Imprint 2-3
- Development Since Independence 3-5
- Debt 5
- An Alternative Strategy: Think Small 5-7
- Two More Problems:
  - The Pastoralists 8
  - War 8
- What's the Answer? 9

Zimbabwe:

- Zimbabwe: Overview 10
- The Colonial Imprint 10
- Development Since Independence:
  - Land 11
  - Supporting the Farmers 11
  - Getting Social Services Out to the Country . 12-13
- The Obstacles:
  - Debt 13
  - South Africa's War 14

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 14-15

TEACHER NOTES 16

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 16

THE SUDAN

1984: Famine

The eyes of the world focus on Ethiopia, as thousands of emaciated refugees plod through a barren landscape to camps in neighbouring Sudan. What the media neglects to point out is that Sudan, too, is experiencing difficulties. 1983 brought poor rains; the 1984 rains are even more sparse. Hundreds of thousands of Sudanese villagers, faced with starvation, begin the long walk to the cities. By 1985 half of Sudan's population — more than 10 million people — will be affected by famine.

SUDAN. Land of drought, famine, war, locusts, debt — surely Sudan must be one of the world's most unfortunate nations.

But a decade ago, Sudan— the country with the largest land area in Africa— was considered on the verge of becoming the "Breadbasket of the Middle East". Plans were afoot as late as 1980 to fund giant food-exporting schemes to supply two-fifths of the Arab World's food needs. Sudan, a country of fertile savannas, was a land of abundance.

What happened?

In Part 9, we look at how government policies helped change Sudan's abundance into famine.

BASIC INDICATORS

	Pop.	GNP per/cap	Life Exp.	IMR	Primary Ed. * Girls	Boys	Pop. / nurse
Sudan	22.6m	320	49	108	49%	58%	1,440
Zimbabwe	8.7m	620	58	74	128%	135%	1,000
Canada	25.6m	14,120	76	8	104%	106%	120

** If over 100%, indicates that people outside the "usual" age range —6 yo 11—are enrolled.*

(Figures from World Bank, World Development Report 1988)

When the waters recede, will Sudan be afloat?

BY CAROLYN JACK
Special to the Globe and Mail

UNTIL LAST week, it was hard to imagine that things could get worse in Sudan. In May, a new push by Government forces in the vicious civil war brought reports of massacre, rape and the destruction of crops and livestock by troops or Government-supported militias. Thousands in the afflicted south fled to the northern cities and Ethiopia, swelling already over-extended shanty settlements and refugee camps.

In June, Sudan appealed to the United Nations for assistance with drought.

In July, it earned an ignominious place in the International Monetary Fund's ledgers when it surpassed $1-billion (U.S.) in debt to the fund, accounting for more than half of the worldwide total.

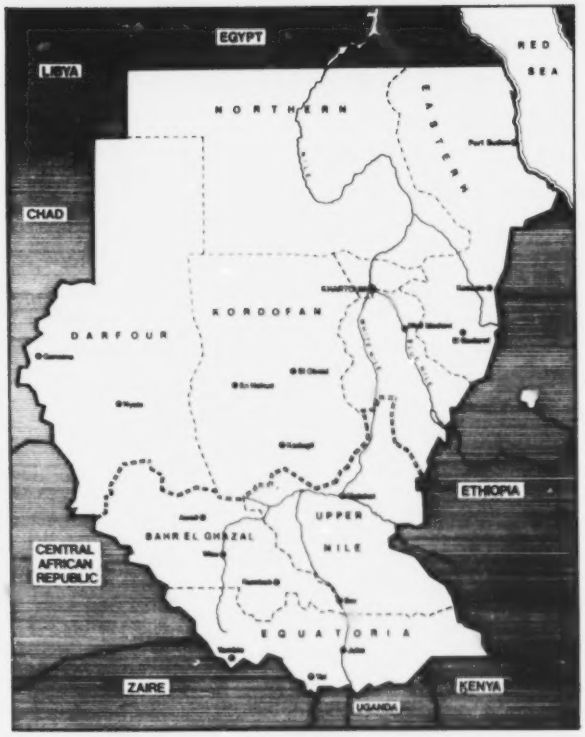
At the beginning of August, Sudan declared itself a locust-infected area.

In these hot, dusty months before the rainy season, people were looking forward to the rains that would bring relief from the stale air and 45-degree heat. Then, two weeks ago, the rains came. And things got worse.

Unprecedented torrential rains fell on Khartoum and the other major northern cities. The downpour flooded streets and washed away the mud-walled homes of Khartoum's poor. In Korton Kassala, on the outskirts of the capital, home to 75,000 refugees from civil strife and drought, more than 70 per cent of the mud and cardboard shelters were destroyed.

This week, as the rains continued, the White and Blue Niles (which meet at Khartoum to form the Nile River) overflowed their banks, adding to the disaster. Dozens have died in collapsing buildings and the general mayhem of the floodwaters. Officials now estimate that between 1.5 and two million people are homeless. There is water, water everywhere, but not an uncontaminated drop to drink. Aid officials regard a major outbreak of typhoid and cholera as inevitable....

(Globe and Mail, August 20, 1988)



Map from ***Profile Sudan****, Cafod et. al.*

THE HISTORICAL ROOTS OF CRISIS: Sudan 350 A.D. to 1900 A.D.

350 Egyptian Coptic Christians bring Christianity to southern Sudan.

542 The Arabs conquer Egypt, and go on to Sudan, bringing the Islamic religion to northern Sudan.

1821 Muhammed Ali, the Khedive of Egypt, conquers Sudan. With British help, he maintains his power in Sudan.

1877 Charles Gordon, an Englishman, is appointed Governor of Sudan by the Khedive of Egypt.

1881 Governor Gordon is overthrown and killed in a Muslim uprising. The Muslims manage to main tain Sudan as an autonomous state for 13 years.

1898 Britain, with the help of Egypt, conquers Sudan.

WHY???

- **is this early history important?**
- **might having two major religions—Christianity and Islam—lead to problems later?**
- **might British colonial rule influence Sudan's later development?**

British Colonial Rule: 1898 to 1956

The colonial imprint

North/South: Splitting them Up

If you were in charge of a country where there was one religion dominant in the north, and another dominant in the south, what policy would you adopt? The British decided on separation. The North was to be developed as a separate Muslim state, the South as a Christian one. In the 1920s, the British began to bar Muslim traders from the South. They left education and health entirely up to Christian missionary societies. This may have been a "divide and rule" tactic, an effort to avoid conflict, or an attempt to aid the spread of Christianity in the South. At any rate, the total effect was to increase the differences between the two areas. When Britain was finally pressured into beginning independence negotiations in the 1950s, the people of the South felt that their aspirations were being overlooked in the negotiations, and in 1955 they rebelled. By the time the British left in 1956, Sudan was in the grip of civil war.

The Cost of Cotton

Question: What could Sudan grow that Britain needed?
Answer: Cotton.

Britain's Lancashire textile mills were busy weaving cloth; they needed to be assured a constant cotton supply. To ensure this supply, Britain established a huge cotton plantation—the Gezira scheme—and gave the ***monopoly*** on the purchase of cotton from tenant farmers to the Gezira Board. Only the Gezira Board had the right to set prices and buy cotton.

What did the monopoly system mean for the British?
The Lancashire mills were guaranteed a steady supply of cotton at a reasonable price, and the colonial administration could extract a percentage of the price to pay its own expenses.

What did the monopoly system mean for the farmers?
It meant that they were guaranteed a low price, since there was no competition for their product, and since the administration could tax the cotton to their heart's content.

These two legacies—a dependence on export crops, and a government monopoly system—are still embedded in Sudan's agricultural policy. Keep them in mind, because we'll return to them later. Together, they add up to **hunger.**

The Infrastructure: Which way does the train go?

In Sudan, as in most of the colonies, the transportation and train systems weren't designed to link up different parts of the country, but to transport goods to Port Sudan, to be shipped off to Britain. If Sudanese wanted to trade with each other, they were out of luck.

The Political Structure: Who calls the shots?

Before colonialism, power was decentralized; decisions were made by small, tribal groups. The British colonial administration produced a centralized system. Although they established rural councils, these councils were never given control of any significant funds. The purse-strings—and therefore the power—were, and remain until the present—in the hands of a central government.

How might these colonial structures affect development? What difference might export crops, monopoly structures, inadequate infrastructure, and a centralized decision-making structure make to the rural people (78% of the population)?

Let's Talk About the Weather...

The weather has certainly played a part in Sudan's problems. The annual rainfall in Sudan ranges from over 1,200 mm. in the south to almost nothing in the north. As you go further north, the rainfall becomes increasingly erratic. Two farmers in the same village can experience different rainfalls and reap different harvests. What's more, it never rains but it pours; in the north, 60 to 80 per cent of the rain falls from July to September.

Add to this the drought of the past few years, and you have a climate which can definitely be termed difficult, but the Sudanese farmers have lived with this difficult climate for generations, have suffered through previous droughts, but have never been as vulnerable as they are now. This vulnerability is the result of weather plus development choices which have been made in the past thirty years.

Development Since Independence:

Development choices in Sudan can be summed up in three words:

BIG IS BEAUTIFUL

Sudan holds the Guiness World Record for a number of its projects. It has the biggest sugar project in the world and the biggest irrigated farm. Let's look at some of Sudan's "Think Big" projects, and see what they have achieved.

AGRICULTURE:

"Think Big" Farming:

In Sudanese tradition, it was impossible to own land. People used land, and chiefs would allocate fields depending on need. In 1970, things changed. The Sudanese government began leasing out large tracts of land to large-scale farmers, many of them retired army generals and cronies of those in power. With help from the World Bank and other agencies, these farmers moved in, evicted the peasant farmers and pastoralists who had traditionally farmed the land, imported tractors, cleared off all the trees and vegetation, and ploughed up the soil to plant crops—mainly sorghum. After a few years, these large tracts of soil were exhausted, and the lease-holders moved on to new pieces, leaving behind them exhausted and eroded soil, and unemployed labourers, who then had little choice but to head for the city.

And the sorghum? Oh, that wasn't for the Sudanese; that was for export to the Middle East.

Who profits from large-scale, mechanized farming projects?
Why pays?
What long-term effects will this policy have on the environment? on food availability?
Who is responsible? —the lease-holders? the government? the World Bank?

EXPORT:

Keeping the World in Cotton

The world's largest irrigated farm— 2 million acres — is the Gezira Cotton Scheme, first begun by the British, and maintained and improved with World Bank help. Cotton is Sudan's major export, accounting for 65 per cent of its exports in 1979. But cotton, like any commodity, has its ups and downs. From 1970 to 1976, while Sudan's import bill was going up, the revenue from cotton was going down, by 9 per cent each year. In 1986, Sudan was left with US$530 million worth of cotton which no one would buy.

What are some of the reasons why people might not be buying so much cotton these days?
What effect will a surplus of cotton on the market have? (on cotton prices? on the cotton pickers? on Sudan's foreign debt?)

INDUSTRY:

The Kenana Sugar Refinery: Satisfying Sudan's Sweet Tooth

The Sudanese eat a lot of sugar; in 1969, they ate 210,342 tons, and in 1979 they increased to 330,678 tons. And sugar, in the mid-70s, was expensive. Why not make Sudan self-sufficient in sugar? In 1974, plans for the Kenana Sugar Refinery and Plantation were begun. When completed, it would be the world's largest sugar project, with a capacity to process 310,000 tons of sugar per year.

Kenana was a **BIG** project, involving the building of a 40 megawatt power station, a network of canals, a pumping station to lift the Nile waters 150 feet from the canals to the fields, 1,000 miles of roads, and an enormous factory. In 1974, the projected costs were US $150 million, of which the Sudanese government would pay 42%. It was a lot of money, but in 1974 it seemed worth it; the price of sugar was £ 665 per ton.

In 1979, the project was ready to start up. The final bill was US $613 million—over four times the original estimate. The price of sugar had slumped to £ 93 per ton.

The Kenana sugar project is still operating. It is estimated that, by the time the Sudanese government has paid the interest, the depreciation costs, and the salaries of the expatriate managers, that they are **losing** money on each ton of sugar they produce.

Meanwhile, the Kenanian tribal people who used to live on the land occupied by the project are experiencing difficulties. Only 2 per cent of them have found work on the project. They now have no land, and are not even allowed to use the water, which is all needed for the project.

Who eats the sugar? Not the 78 per cent of Sudan's population who live in the countryside. Most of the sugar is turned into cake mixes, breakfast cereals and soft drinks for Sudan's westernized city dwellers.

Who benefits from the Kenana Sugar project?
Who pays?
Could this money have been better spent?
This project was designed to reduce the loss of Sudan's scarce foreign exchange, which was being spent for imported sugar. Do you think the project has helped or worsened the foreign exchange situation?

These "Think Big" projects, all requiring large-scale imports of machinery, personnel, fuel, and other inputs, bring us to Sudan's next important problem:

Debt: The Dollar Drain

In 1985, Sudan owed 11 billion dollars US. That's $545 for every man, woman and child in the Sudan—quite a bit when you consider that the GNP per capita is $320. The money was generally spent on big projects: 10 textile factories, 6 sugar factories, roads, dams, urban electricity projects. The 78% of Sudan's population who are small farmers or pastoralists never saw any of the $11 billion.

In 1984, the banks to which Sudan owed money got nervous, and demanded that the IMF be called in. The result? An IMF "rescue package". Sudanese money was suddenly devalued, and subsidies on food removed. Prices of basic foods shot up. The urban poor, many of whom were farmers who had found it impossible to make a living in food production, or had been displaced by the giant agricultural projects, found that they could no longer afford to buy food. In 1985, the urban poor of Khartoum rioted and overthrew their president, Colonel Nimeiri. The response to this protest was a military one. Troops were called in, and truckloads of migrants from drought areas were rounded up and transported back to the western provinces from which they'd come. It seemed that the cycle of repression and revolt, so common in African countries, had begun!

An Alternative Strategy:

~~Think Big~~

Think Small

While all these large projects have been going on, piling up debt and leading to deforestation and desertification of Sudan, what has been happening to the average Sudanese citizen, the small farmer? What help does he or she need to grow enough food to feed Sudan, and to do it in a way which will conserve the soil?

PROBLEM 1:
Trees and Government Policy

Imagine a perfect African tree.

* It would grow quickly.
* It would be a leguminous plant, "fixing" nitrogen in the soil, and enriching it.
* It would produce wood suitable for building, and fodder for animals.
* It would produce a cash-generating product.

For centuries, Sudan has grown such a tree. It's called ***acacia senegal,*** and it produces a major export product, gum arabic, which is used the world over in chemical, brewing and food industries. Sudanese farmers have traditionally used acacia senegal in rotation with millet and sorghum crops: five years of millet and sorghum, then 15 years of acacia senegal.

But the use of acacia senegal is diminishing. Why? The answer lies in the price of gum arabic, and in the use of government monopoly.

Gum arabic can only be sold through the government marketing board. The government, eager to wring as much money as possible from the farmers, taxes gum arabic with seven different taxes. By the time the farmer receives a return, it's been reduced to just about nothing. In fact, in 1984 it was estimated that a farmer could make three times as much money by turning acacia senegal trees into charcoal for sale as fuel, as by harvesting the gum.

Because the supply of gum arabic has gone down, the government marketing board is having trouble guaranteeing its international customers a constant supply. Customers have started looking for other alternatives, including synthetic alternatives.

How could this situation be turned around?
What are the environmental effects of the current policy?
Does the current policy suggest anything about the bias of the government?

PROBLEM 2:
Credit

Sudanese farmers, like Canadian farmers, sometimes need credit. A loan may be needed to buy seeds or to buy food to carry through to the next harvest.

The Canadian farmer goes to the bank. But no Sudanese bank will take on the poor Sudanese farmer; he or she is not considered credit-worthy. Instead, our Sudanese farmer will most likely go to the poor-person's banker, the *sheil*. The sheil is a local trader with money to spare. He is happy to advance seeds, food or money for a proportion of the crop when it comes. His profit margin is one which would kindle joy in the heart of a North American loan shark — 50 to 75 per cent.

The farmer is left with only a small portion of his or her gross earnings. It will be even easier to get into debt next year.

How will the farmer respond?

"I need to grow as many crops as possible, to get out of this downward spiral. I just won't be able to let the fields lie fallow for so long!"

What's the answer?

"If I could just get a little credit with reasonable interest rates . . ."

In what way might the debt situation of small farmers lead to desertification?
What solutions can you see for this situation?

PROBLEM 3:
Competing with Food Aid

Sudan's largest donor of food aid is the US. In 1985, the US exported 320,000 tons of wheat, plus 600,000 tons of drought-relief food.

In 1986, the Sudanese farmer was paid LS 35* for a bag of grain which had cost LS 39 to produce. Why the low price? A market flooded with free food.

(* LS is Sudanese currency.)

How can governments keep food aid from suppressing the prices paid to their own farmers?

PROBLEM 4:
Women Farmers

As in most parts of Africa, the lives of rural women in Sudan are difficult. Rural work is strictly divided by sex, and it is women who bear the heaviest workload. They grow vegetables for their families, carry the water, find and carry the firewood, grind the grain, cook, wash and care for the children and the aged.

Although they work the most, they eat the least. The death toll among women during the famine has been high; the women eat last, and therefore often don't eat at all.

Because of famine and civil war, many women are now heads of their households. But the development projects and agricultural extension schemes which might make their lives easier are aimed at men, not women.

How could government policies support women farmers?

PROBLEM 5:
Getting to Market

In Sudan, the main roads and the railway all go in the same direction—from large agricultural projects or large cities to Port Sudan, where goods are exported. Where does this leave the small rural farmers, who have grain or other goods to sell? They have two choices:

- They can sell their grain at the small, local market, where the prices will probably be controlled by a cartel of merchants who keep the prices low so that they can make large profits.
- They can pay transportation rates. These are also controlled by a cartel of rich merchants, who own the trucks which navigate the narrow dirt tracks. The price of a sack of grain can double or triple from the village to Port Sudan.

In either case, the result is the same. The farmer is the loser.

How could the transportation and road system be changed to benefit the small farmer?

It seems as if, while the government has been thinking big, the little person—the small farmer—has been losing out!

The results of these policies—low prices, lack of credit, lack of ability to market effectively, competition from free food—have been disastrous:

* deforestation and desertification
* lack of incentive to produce more food
* poverty and starvation amongst the rural population
* urbanization (From 1980 to 1985, the *annual* rate of urban increase was 4.8; Khartoum is one of Africa's most rapidly expanding cities.)

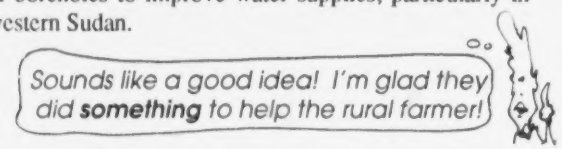
And, as if that weren't enough. . . .

(turn to next page. . . .)

TWO MORE PROBLEMS:

1 The Pastoralists

In the mid 60s, the Sudanese government undertook a "freedom from thirst" campaign, drilling hundreds of boreholes to improve water supplies, particularly in western Sudan.



It did seem like a good idea at the time, but now when you fly over these boreholes, you can see they're generally situated in the middle of large, circular deserts. The areas around them have been trampled and grazed to death. Sudan, like many other African countries, must deal with the problem of cattle, herded by nomadic herders, or pastoralists.

To Sudanese pastoralists, cattle and camels are symbols of status and wealth. The more you have, the better insured you are against disaster in a very harsh environment. Traditionally, pastoralists have taken their herds over enormous areas, following the rain, digging temporary wells, or searching out seasonal rivers. They understood how to live within the limits of the land.

Permanent wells changed this pattern dramatically; groups of nomadic people stayed for longer periods of time around the wells, and their cattle overgrazed the land. Pastoral people also face a "land squeeze". Land which was traditionally used for grazing is being taken over by farming projects, and herds of cattle are increasingly being forced onto more marginal land, land which is too fragile to withstand the trampling of hooves and the nibbling of seedlings.

Yet nomadic people are very skilled in raising their animals, getting a living out of land which is not suited for crops. The Sudanese government, like other African governments, is faced with the complicated problem of supporting these people in ways which will encourage environmental sustainability—increasing the distribution of boreholes to keep herds dispersed, growing fodder in some areas for the cattle, designing basic methods of "insurance" which will keep pastoralists from over-stocking their herds. (For more on pastoralists, see Part 6:Environment, pages 6 and 9.)

2 War

Sudan is faced with the results of wars without and within. In neighbouring Ethiopia, the people of Tigray and Eritrea wage long, drawn-out wars of independence. In Uganda, human rights violations have driven many citizens out of the country. Many of these people have found their way to refugee camps in Sudan. In 1985, Sudan was home to over one million refugees: 750,000 from Eritrea and 250,000 from Uganda. But Sudan also has hundreds of thousands of *internal* refugees fleeing to the cities, some from famine, some from war, and many from a combination of the two.

Sudan's War

The smouldering hostilities between the south and the north of Sudan, exacerbated by colonial rule, continue to haunt Sudan. The first civil war, begun in 1955, lasted until 1972, when the then-leader, Nimeiri, negotiated a truce which gave the south regional autonomy. In 1983, however, Nimeiri had a change of heart, and decided that the autonomous south was too strong. He divided it, without consultation, into three regions, and imposed Islamic law on Sudan.

The response to this was the formation of the Sudanese People's Liberation Army (SPLA), which is currently carrying out a guerrilla war against government forces in the south.

What has this meant for food production in Sudan?

- The Labour Drain: Young men in the south either join the SPLA, or move to the towns to keep away from the conflict.
- Destruction of fields, danger of working in the fields
- Closing the south to relief shipments. While the war has closed the roads to traffic, thousands of southern Sudanese have starved. In early December 1988, after almost a year of negotiations, airloads of food began to go to selected southern towns, but the relief was limited, and too late for many.
- The Dollar Drain: The civil war costs the government US$100 million per year.

Bread Basket to "Basket Case":
The problem in a nutshell

Large debts have been incurred by spending on large-scale projects which have harmed the environment and aimed at export markets. The people who would have tended and cared for Sudan's environment—the peasant farmers—have been ignored, taxed, and exploited until they can no longer grow the food Sudan needs.

What's the answer?

When we think about famine as an "Act of God"—a result of the weather—it seems that there's nothing much anybody can do to change things. When we look at famine as a human act, brought about by a series of choices in development, there's a lot more potential for change. After reading about the Sudan, see if you can come up with a list of necessary changes. What about:

Political changes: Who should make the decisions?
What changes could bring about peace?
How could these changes come about?

Agricultural changes: What changes would help the small farmer produce more food and escape a life of poverty? (credit, small-scale projects, help in agriculture and marketting) What priority should be given to food self-sufficiency? export projects?

Projects: What kind of projects should be encouraged? discouraged?

Environment: What type of policies would help the Sudanese people maintain their environment?

First World Policies: Should we demand debt repayment? Is there any way we could help in stabilizing commodity prices?

Aid: Should we send food aid? What kind of aid should our government support?

*(Information Sources on Sudan: Bennett, Jon. **The Hunger Machine**. Toronto: CBC Enterprises, 1987; Cater, Nick, Sudan: **The Roots of Famine**. Banbury:OXFAM, 1986; CAFOD, **Profile SUDAN**.)*

Close-up:

ZIMBABWE

Unlike most African countries, which gained independence in the 1950s or 60s, Zimbabwe—which was formerly the British colony of Rhodesia—did not win independence until 1980, after seven years of armed struggle. When Robert Mugabe's government took over, this is what they faced:

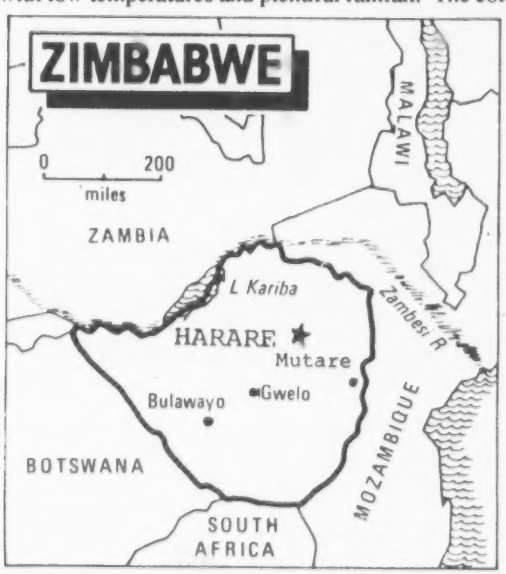
- A million people (over one-eighth of the population) had been left homeless or forced to emigrate during the struggle against the white minority regime.
- The country's cattle herd had shrunk to a third.
- Thousands of kilometres of roads were useless.
- More than two-thirds of the schools had remained closed for seven years.
- Medical and sanitary systems were seriously damaged, and disease was on the rise.
- Most of the best, arable land was owned by a tiny white minority, while the black majority were crowded onto sections of marginal land, with low rainfall.

Yet, in 1985, Zimbabwe produced its biggest maize harvest ever, with a surplus of 800,000 tons. It donated 25,000 tons and $1 million to Ethiopia, making Zimbabwe the first non-oil-producing African nation to be both a giver, as well as a recipient, of aid. As well as being a net food exporter, Zimbabwe has made impressive strides in the education and health of its people. What problems did it overcome? What are the secrets of its success?

The Colonial Imprint:

Like Sudan, Zimbabwe—formerly Rhodesia—was a British colony. Like Sudan, it has two major groupings of people, who have had great difficulty in getting along. The first British colonists, who came under the protection of the British South Africa Company, managed to get a foothold in the area by exploiting the rivalries of these two groups, the Shona in the north, and the Ndebele people in the south-east.

Unlike Sudan, however, much of Rhodesia was blessed (or cursed) with a climate very attractive to British settlers, with low temperatures and plentiful rainfall. The colonialists in Rhodesia settled in to stay. By 1960, the whites, who constituted 5 per cent of the population, occupied more than 70 per cent of the arable land. They were able to farm this large area with the help of a large pool of very poorly-paid black labour. Why did the native Africans labour on white farms? Partly because their land had been taken away, and partly because they had to pay taxes first imposed by Cecil Rhodes, the British governor, in 1893.



Map: New Internationalist

Under the 1969 Land Tenure Act, white and black farmers each had 45 million acres of land. The white lands—occupied by the small white minority—were in the country's highveld, which receives the most frequent rainfall. The black lands—occupied by 80 per cent of the population—were marginal, with little rainfall. The population density in these lands was more than 3.5 times that of the white areas.

Development Since Independence:

Land

The struggle for independence was partly a struggle for land. The African population, impoverished and landless, wanted land as well as the right to vote. However, in the Lancaster House Agreement signed at independence, Zimbabwe's new leader, Robert Mugabe, agreed not to expropriate the white farmers; land for resettlement would be **bought** from them at market prices, and only if they want to sell. In 1980, Mugabe announced an ambitious plan to buy up white farms and resettle 162,000 families. But the resettlement has been slow-going, and by 1988, just 42,000 peasant families had been resettled on 2.6 million acres bought from white farmers, and most of that land was of inferior quality.

Supporting the Farmers

What the government hasn't managed to achieve by land re-distribution, it has achieved in provision of services and pricing structure.

★ **PRICES:** The government has set prices for food high enough to guarantee a profit.

★ **CREDIT:** Small farmers can get government loans to help them invest in seeds, fertilizers, or machinery. In 1985 the government loaned $35 million to 90,000 small farmers. (Compare to the 1979, pre-independence figure of $1 million to 4,500 small farmers.)

★ **DISTRIBUTION:** Distribution centres, to make seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and tools readily available, have been set up in many areas.

★ **ROADS:** Roads now connect rural areas to marketing centres. Most of them are not paved, but they are graded and maintained.

★ **GRAIN DEPOTS:** 66 grain depots dot the country. At these depots, peasant farmers can sell their surplus crops at government-set prices. Before independence, these depots were only in white farming areas and the black farmers saw their profits eaten up by huge transportation costs. By providing good storage facilities, the government also keeps spoilage losses low—less than 1 per cent, compared with 15 per cent for many African countries.

★ **EXTENSION WORKERS:** Along with the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the Zimbabwean government has embarked on a massive program of agricultural extension workers. Peasant farmer societies can get lessons in modern methods, record-keeping, and applying for loans.

★ **WOMEN FARMERS:** In 1981 the Zimbabwean parliament granted women equal rights with men in land ownership, agricultural training and credit.

Where has all this led?

✦ In 1980, when independence was declared, small farmers only produced **10 percent** of the marketed produce; the rest was produced by the large white-owned commercial farms.

✦ In 1985, small farmers produced **38 per cent** of the marketed produce. From 1980 to 1985, the value of the maize and cotton produced by the small farmer grew from $17 million to $218 million.

✦ In July, 1988, the small farmer produced **64 per cent** of the crop revenue.

Getting Social Services out to the Country

Health:

"The ministry pledged to bring health care to all within 20 years or sooner, but where to begin, in a land where thousands seldom have medical attention, where malnutrition weakens children so that illnesses which barely affect a "normal" youngster bring death; where malaria, bilharzia and many preventable diseases are endemic? Zimbabwe's inherited health system has no answer. It was designed to provide costly treatment and care for those in, or with the means to reach our main cities. Outside those centres, only 16 doctors at present maintain a tenuous grip on the health of almost six million people. A revolutionary approach is needed. . . a planned and thoughtful many-pronged assault on this mountain of rural misery."

(**The Herald**,(a Zimbabwean newspaper) September 23, 1982, reprinted in *Primary Health Care in Zimbabwe*, Global Health Reports, January 1984)

Before Independence: Health Care in Rhodesia

EUROPEAN	AFRICAN
3.5 % of population	96% of population (.5% mixed or Asian)
IMR	
17/1,000 births	170-300/ 1,000 births
Doctors	
1/1,800 people	Rural areas: 1/100,000 people
Hospital beds	
1/255 people	1/1,262 people

*(Figures from DEC, **Global Health Reports**, January 1984)*

In Independent Zimbabwe: Health Care for All

★ Health care is free for all who make less than $150 per month.

★ Village Health Workers are selected by their communities and paid by local authorities. They are trained at local health centres, and provided with medical kits and bicycles. They each serve 50 to 200 families, and their job is to educate their communities, as well as diagnose and treat simple ailments. When the Village Health Workers cannot treat someone, they refer them to a rural health centre, which is staffed with medical assistants. From there, the difficult cases are sent to the hospitals.

★ As a result of community meetings coordinated by the Village Health Workers, many communities have joined together to build wells, latrines, and health clinics.

Drugs and Medicines:
To make basic medicines affordable, the Zimbabwean government buys large quantities, repackages them, and makes them available throughout the country.

Birth Control:
Zimbabwe's family planning system is, like the health system, community based. Community-based distributors, chosen by their villages, give out contraceptives and advice. The stress in Zimbabwe is on spacing the children in a family so that both mother and baby will be healthier. (For more on family planning in Zimbabwe, see Part 7:Population, page 5.)

Education:

In education, as in health, black Zimbabweans, until independence, had lagged behind the whites. The first measure of Mugabe's government was to proclaim education free and without discrimination, including education for rural Zimbabweans. This led to a sudden expansion in education spending and facilities.

The focus, as well as the enrolment, has changed. The emphasis is "Education with Production", and courses are designed to teach practical subjects—agriculture, metal work, building, science and technology—which will help in Zimbabwe's development.

	1979	1985
Education Budget	$71.4 million U.S.	$337.2 million U.S.
Primary pupils	819,586	2,229,366
Secondary pupils	66,215	497,766
University pupils	2,000	5,860

The number of adult illiterates has also changed. In 1979, over 75% of Zimbabweans were illiterate. In 1983, the government launched the National Literacy Campaign, which has taught 500,000 people to read and write. Continuing education is provided through Radio 4, a station exclusively for educational programs.

The Obstacles:

Development hasn't gone in a straight, upward path for Zimbabwe. Like all Third World countries, it faces many obstacles.

The Economic Obstacles:

Debt:

Zimbabwe's external debt is less than Sudan's—$396 per person, compared to $545 per person in the Sudan. And the loans, most of which were made to reconstruct the country after the war of independence, have been spent in ways which have benefitted Zimbabweans. Nevertheless, debt payment commitments for 1988 to 1992 will average 30 per cent of Zimbabwe's export earnings.

Paying back the debt: How to do it

Zimbabwe's exports are agricultural (tobacco and sugar) and mineral (pig iron, nickel, and other minerals). Prices of these commodities have dropped. Zimbabwe would like to get into increased manufacturing, as a way of providing jobs for its young, educated population. (55 percent of Zimbabweans are under 15 years old.) But it fears that the First World countries, which are becoming increasingly protectionist, will slap tariffs and quotas on its manufactured goods.

Another answer tried by Zimbabwe was to cut down on its imports. In 1987, it reduced the total currency allocation for imports by 15 per cent. But the industrial sector complained. How could they get replacement parts for their machinery if they were not allowed to import them? If the factories closed down, jobs would be lost.

For Zimbabwe, like other developing countries caught in the "trade trap", there are no easy answers.

In 1986, Zimbabwe tried to export some of its massive surplus of maize. But there was too much maize on the world market. The European Economic Community had a huge surplus of maize which it dumped on the world market at low prices. The result? Zimbabwe could only sell its maize at a loss.

The Political Obstacle: South Africa's War

Like Sudan, Zimbabwe must pay the costs of war. During the first few years of independence, Zimbabwe experienced internal strife, between the ruling ZANU party (supported by Shona people) and the ZAPU party (supported by the minority Ndebele people). While tensions still exist, the major conflict is over. However, Zimbabwe continues to face violence outside its control.

Since Zimbabwe got independence, it has faced a policy of harrassment and destabilization from South Africa. South Africa has interfered in Zimbabwe's affairs both indirectly (supporting ZAPU-linked terrorist groups within Zimbabwe) and directly, by attacks through the South African Airforce.

Zimbabwe is a land-locked country. To export and import, it needs access to a port. Along with other "frontline states" (the term used to describe the African countries most vulnerable to South African aggression), Zimbabwe puts enormous effort into trying to reduce its dependence on South African imports by using alternative trade routes. In Zimbabwe's case, the alternative route to the sea is the railway line running through the Beira Corridor, in Mozambique. South Africa, determined to keep the nations of southern Africa dependent on her trade routes, finances the Mozambique National Resistance terrorist organization, which constantly attacks this railway line. The Zimbabwean army, in order to keep the Beira railway open, constantly maintains and patrols the corridor.

But it all costs money, as well as lives. Defence spending now eats up 16 per cent of the Zimbabwean budget, forcing cuts in development programs.

"Basket Case" to Breadbasket: The Answer in a Nutshell

Unlike Sudan, Zimbabwe has put its major efforts into support for small farmers. What has this development policy meant in terms of food production? standard of living for the poorest Zimbabweans? health and nutrition? the environment?

ACTIVITIES:

1. Futures:

Read the table "Basic Indicators", page 1. Think about what it would be like to be a teenager in Sudan, in Zimbabwe. Then write a brief extract outlining the lives of three average teenagers: Mohammed or Zania in Sudan, Ezra or Emily in Zimbabwe, Steve or Jennifer in Canada. What will each of them be able to expect in terms of education, job, income, lifestyle (holidays, entertainment), home? What degree of choice will each of these teenagers have in their lives?

2. Sudan-Changes:

You have been called in by the Sudan government to advise them on their development strategy. Read the information on Sudan, pages 1 to 9. Think about the questions on page 9. Then draw up, in point form, a list of the suggested changes which you will present to the government.

3. Priorities in Development:

If you read the two case studies—Sudan and Zimbabwe—you will notice that the governments of Sudan and Zimbabwe had different priorities in development; they chose to spend their money in different ways. Write an essay entitled "Different priorities, different results", showing how the development priorities of each country has led them to where they are now.

4. The Colonial Imprint:

Both Sudan and Zimbabwe were British colonies. Both have experienced difficulties as a result of the structures set up by the British while they were in power.

Working in a group of three, develop a conversation between a young person from Sudan, one from Zimbabwe, and a colonial administrator. The colonial administrator feels that he did the best for these countries; the young people feel that he set them on the road to ruin.

5. The Cry for Credit:

What do farmers in Zimbabwe, Sudan and Canada all have in common? One thing is a need for reasonable credit. Read the sections on credit in Sudan (p. 6) and Zimbabwe (p. 11). Take the position of a Canadian aid official, working in the Sudan. Your organization would like to help small farmers. Draw up a scheme to present to your organization, for helping the small farmers work together. Your scheme will offer an initial interest-free loan from your organization, so that the farmers can provide credit for themselves and become independent of the *sheil* (money-lender).

6. Megaproject Madness?

Sudan could perhaps be described as a monument to the folly of the megaproject. Think about the problems involved in megaprojects (environmental problems, debt, cost overruns, changeability of the world market, need to import machinery and personnel, neglect of other aspects of the economy). Canada, too, has had its megaproject problems. B.C.'s northeast coal development shares certain similarities with the Kenana Sugar Project in Sudan; it, too, faced a slump in the commodity market, and ended up producing its commodity—coal—at a loss.

Prepare to debate the following topic:

"The era of the megaproject is dead!"

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7. Commodity Blues:

Both Sudan and Zimbabwe have had difficulty with the commodity trade. Describe the difficulties faced by Sudan with its cotton and gum arabic (pages 4 and 6) and Zimbabwe with its maize surplus (page 13). Look back to the section on trade and commodities (Part 4: Trade, Aid & Debt, pages 1-3). Develop a conversation (similar to the one on Part 4, p. 1) or an essay discussing the problem of commodities from a Sudanese or Zimbabwean point of view.

8. A Farmers' Conference:

Small farmers in Canada and Africa all share similar problems. They are at the mercy of the weather, of prices for their products that they cannot control, of competition from cheap imported food, of an urban bias which keeps the prices paid to farmers low, and which leads to poor services in rural areas. Simulate an international conference of small producers, taking on the roles of farmers and pastoralists from Sudan, Zimbabwe, Canada, and perhaps some other countries. Discuss the following:

* What are the benefits of keeping the small farmer in business? (Think of urbanization, employment, environmental degradation, and food self-sufficiency.)
* What common problems do you have?
* What are some solutions which would benefit the small farmers in all your countries?

Focus on this statement:

"If small-scale farming is to survive, governments the world over are going to have to change their policies."

Information Sources on Zimbabwe: Abron, J. "Zimbabwe Revisited," **Food First News**, Spring 1984; Meldrum, A. "The Prize-Winning Peasant Farmers", **Africa Report**, September-October 1988; Morna, C. "What Road to Growth?", **Africa Report**, November-December 1987; Taylor, D. "Black Land, White Land", **New Internationalist**, January 1988; **Third World Guide 1987-88.** Netherlands: Novib Publishing House, 1986; Timberlake, L. **Only One Earth**. London: BBC Books/ Earthscan, 1987; UNICEF, **The State of the World's Children 1987**

Part 9: Sudan & Zimbabwe
Teacher Notes

The broad questions:

What development choices have these two countries made which have led to famine or plenty?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of "think big" versus "think small" development priorities?

OVERVIEW:

Part 9 focuses on two countries: Sudan, which—although it once held great agricultural promise—is now facing terrible problems of starvation, war and displacement, and Zimbabwe, which—although facing terrible problems at its independence—has supported its small farmers and is now producing a surplus of food, as well moving ahead in other rural services. It is hoped that students who have gone through some of the other material in ***The Africa File*** will be able to apply some of their learning on general issues to these two countries.

Key Concepts:

SUDAN

- Sudan, a few years ago considered the breadbasket of the Middle East, is now suffering the effects of famine and civil war.
- British colonial rule set the stage for some of Sudan's current problems.
- Since independence, Sudan's development strategy has focused on megaprojects, particularly in agriculture. This has led to enormous problems of environmental degradation and debt.
- While "thinking big", Sudan neglected to support small farmers (78% of the population). They have been dogged by exploitive government taxes, lack of credit, marketing and transportation difficulties, competition from food aid, and lack of support for women farmers.
- Sudan also has the problems of a)pastoralists, who once lived in harmony with the land, but whose large herds now mean environmental degradation, and b) civil war.
- If Sudan is to pull itself out of this current state, the government will have to change its priorities. Students are asked to reflect on what changes are needed.

ZIMBABWE

- Zimbabwe won its independence after 7 years of struggle, which left the country in a shambles.
- The main colonial legacy with which Zimbabwe still struggles is the unequal distribution of land between whites and blacks.
- Despite the land problem, Zimbabwe has attempted to support its small farmers in a number of ways: fair prices, credit, availability of seeds, fertilizers and pesticides plus help from extension workers, rural roads, grain depots to help with storage and marketing. Zimbabwe has also given equal rights to its women farmers. The result has been a dramatic increase in food production.
- The government has also launched into education and health-provision programs in the rural areas.
- Despite problems of economics and war, Zimbabwe has managed to improve the lives of most rural Zimbabweans.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

On Sudan:

The Politics of Hunger, Vol. 1 (CBC Enterprises, 52 min.) gives an excellent picture of Sudan's disastrous food policies.

For this and other resources on Sudan and Zimbabwe, contact your nearest Learner Centre (Part 10, pages 12-13)

What Can I Do?

Part 10

THE FUTURE AND YOU

contents

Part 10: The Future and You

STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Worst-Case and Best-Case Scenarios for Africa 1

Meanwhile, Back on the Western Front
(Related First World Problems) 2

What Can I Actually Do?
- Keeping Informed
(Getting Accurate Information) 2-3
- Supporting NGOs 3
- Writing Letters 4
- Looking at Lifestyles 4
- Consuming Conscientiously 5
- Being a Sensitive Tourist
(Problems of Third World Tourism) 6-7
- Volunteering in Development 8
- Start From Where You Are 8

People Making a Difference:
- Duncan & Meru 9-10
- WaterCan 10-11
- The Global Village Store 11

Useful Addresses:
- Learner Centres 12-13
- Other Agencies / NGOs 13

STUDENT ACTIVITIES 14

TEACHER NOTES 15

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES 15

THE FUTURE & YOU

Looked at one way, Africa is a disaster, its only future one of famine and despair. It is overwhelmed with debt; its population is rapidly expanding and its food production is not able to keep up; large areas are suffering the effects of deforestation and erosion; governments are becoming increasingly militarized and repressive. What hope is there?

Looked at another way, Africa's food and environment crisis has forced African governments and the rest of the world to take note, to re-evaluate the development choices which have been made, and to start the long road to a viable, sustainable future. Africa's future, from this perspective, will depend largely on the strength and determination of rural Africans—the very people who, up until now, have been ignored in the development plans of many African nations.

"I have always been struck by the fact that Western diplomats, experts, and businesspeople tend to express only gloom and doom about Africa, while missionaries and volunteers speak much more in praise of the African potential. This difference cannot only be explained with reference to the latter's "idealism". More important is the fact that they are in a position, through their day-to-day interaction with ordinary Africans, to witness the great resilience, creativity, and energy that the continent harbors."

(G. Hyden," Debt: The Development Trap", **Africa Report**, Nov.-Dec. 1987)

Worst-Case and Best-Case Scenarios for Africa

1 The Worst Case — DOOM & GLOOM

- Africa's population will continue to grow at its present rate. By 2010, 32 million people will be added each year.
- Food production per person will continue to decline at 1 per cent a year; poor, debt-ridden African countries will be unable to import enough food, and 127 million Africans will suffer from malnutrition by the year 2000. Every available scrap of arable land will be cultivated, but by 2000 A.D., Africa will be able to feed only 55 per cent of its population unless it uses fertilizer inputs, which it will not be able to afford.
- Firewood will become increasingly scarce.
- Desertification will continue.
- Discontent among the poor will lead to civil strife, and more money will be spent on arms to repress dissent.

2 The Best Case — A RADICAL SHIFT

- Using pyramid structure training schemes (people are trained to be trainers, then the trainers train others, and so it goes on), systems of sustainable agriculture will be promoted. Using inexpensive methods, people will learn to conserve their soil and water, and will be given improved seeds.
- Government prices will be set to make farming worthwhile. Priority in agriculture will be given to food crops before export crops, and security of land tenure for both men and women farmers will encourage them to take steps towards long-term conservation.
- Education, health and water-provision schemes will make rural living more attractive and slow the growth of cities.
- Cooperative groups of farmers will be encouraged to pool their resources to buy draft animals, to build facilities, to participate in their own development.

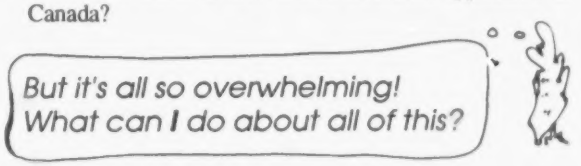
The African crisis of the mid-80s has created the psychological climate for a shift in development strategies; will the governments be able to overcome their largely urban perspective in time to lend their weight to this shift?

MEANWHILE, back on the Western Front....

Problems in the First World don't stop there, they spread to the Third World. When we heat up the earth with our over-use of fossil fuels, the temperature rise affects Africa, too. When our aerosol cans eat into the ozone layer, the effects are felt by peasant farmers who have never seen an aerosol can. When our toxic waste is dumped on African beaches, it is Africans who suffer the health hazards.

First World economic policies also influence the Third World. When Third World producers receive low prices for their products, when their meager export earnings go to the First World to pay the interest on debt, the effects are felt by millions of people living lives of poverty and hunger.

Problems in the Third World can affect us, too, by helping us see the harmful effects of certain forms of development. When Canadians see the effects in Africa of lack of support for small farmers, environmental degradation, deforestation, they begin to question their own development. How sustainable are our development policies? Are some of the African solutions applicable to Canada?

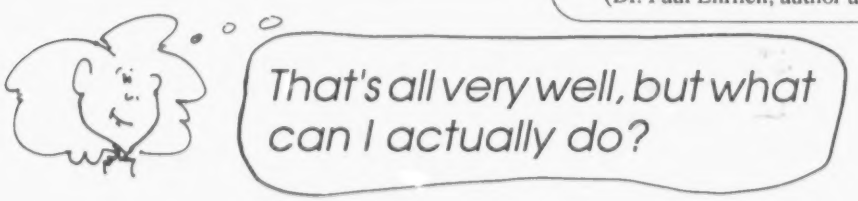


Some people think that one person can't do anything to make a dent in the world order. They're the people who give up before they start. But one of the lessons which we can learn from Africa is that **people make a difference**. Just as Africans, faced with overwhelming obstacles, can get together and carry rocks for a dam, or build a health clinic, or plant a community forest, so Canadians **can** make a difference in African and Canadian development.

"It is better to light one candle than to curse the darkness"
(Chinese Proverb)

"If you're not part of the answer, you're part of the problem."
(Eldridge Cleaver)

"It is the sum total of the actions of millions of individuals that constitute effective group action. Get involved in political action. Otherwise we shall all eventually find ourselves stranded in space on a dead Spaceship Earth."
(Dr. Paul Ehrlich, author and environmentalist)



1. KEEPING INFORMED

Keeping informed about what's really going on in the Third World is no easy task. A 1975 study showed that 79 per cent of all international news comes from just four agencies: Associated Press, UPI, AFP of France and Reuters. A UNESCO study showed that these four agencies in 1977 had 35 per cent of their correspondents in North America, 28 per cent in Europe and 17 per cent in Asia and the Pacific (including Japan and Australia), leaving only 21 per cent to cover all of Latin America, Africa and the Middle East.

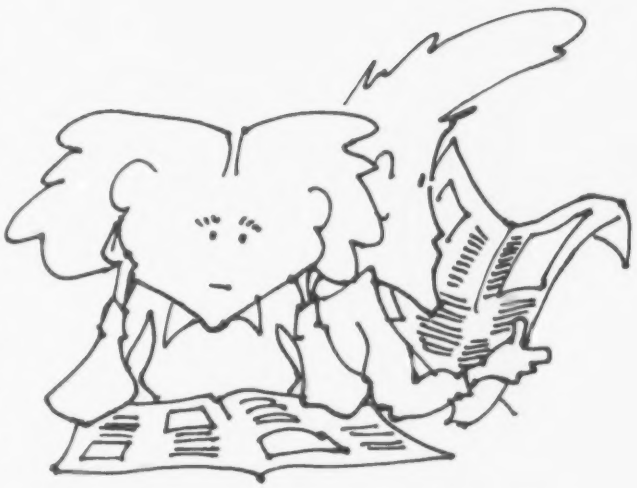
As a result, much of the news we get from the Third World—and much of the news that the Third World gets about itself—tends to be crisis information: a famine here, an earthquake there, a coup somewhere else. The day-to-day news about people struggling to overcome underdevelopment is simply not there. And the news that *is* reported is from a First World perspective.

The developing nations have, through UNESCO (the United Nations Economic, Social and Cultural Organization), struggled for a New World Information Order (NWIO), to get support for policies and technology which would allow more Third World information, written and filmed by Third World people, to get to other countries in the Third World and the First World.

The newspaper interests in the United States and Europe were hostile to the NWIO, the U.S. and Britain withdrew from UNESCO, and the NWIO still remains a dream for Third World people. Some advances have been made, though. The Inter Press Service is an international news agency specializing in news relating to the Third World. In 1983, IPS had bureaus or correspondents in more than 60 countries. The problem for IPS is that it has not been able to get its news widely accepted by newspapers in North America.

As a result, Canadians wanting to learn more about development in Third World countries have had to look for information in what is called "the alternative press" — smaller magazines which specialize in information about developing countries. The most well-known of these is the monthly ***New Internationalist***; other magazines such as *Africa Report* and *AfricAsia* deal with specific regions.

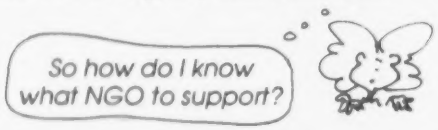
If you live near an international Learner Centre (see list pages 12-13), you're lucky; you can drop in and browse. If you don't, you may want to chat to your school librarian; the ***New Internationalist*** is carried by many school libraries.



If you can't get hold of any alternative sources of Third World information, you can learn a lot by reading mainstream newspapers; the important thing is to read between the lines, keeping in mind what a Third World person's viewpoint on the material might be.

2. SUPPORTING NGOs

There are a wide variety of Canadian NGOs (non-governmental organizations) which help provide people in Africa and other developing areas with the tools and materials they need to help themselves improve their lives. During the "Ethiopian Crisis" of 1985, students all over Canada found that they could raise money. They organized dances, starvathons, walkathons, auctions and garage sales, and raised thousands of dollars for drought relief in Africa. Fundraising, they discovered, is fun.



Good question! Think about the successful projects we looked at in other parts of this kit.

★ Who planned and implemented them?
★ What kind of technology did they use?
★ How were women affected?
★ How was the environment affected?
★ Where did the materials come from?
★ What group of people benefited?
★ Did they contribute to self-reliance, or lead to continued dependence?

These are some of the questions you might like to ask of an NGO before you decide whether to support its projects.

3. WRITING LETTERS

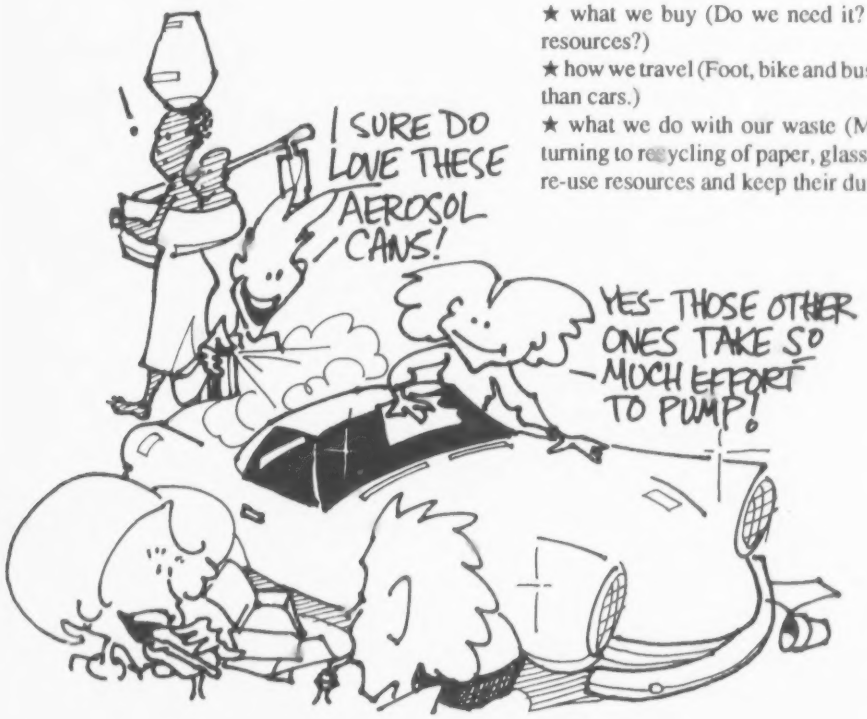
The power of the pen is not to be underestimated. For the cost of a piece of paper and an envelope, you can ask questions of your Member of Parliament, and tell him or her what kinds of aid and trade policies you would like the Canadian government to pursue. A letter to any MP, including the Prime Minister, can be sent without a stamp. MPs acknowledge that they take letters from their constituents very seriously, and that letters can challenge them to re-think some of their positions.

One organization which has organized itself around the power of the pen is ***Amnesty International***. AI has more than 200,000 members in 111 countries, and they all write letters. When the AI office finds about someone imprisoned anywhere for their beliefs, colour, ethnic origin or religion, they alert their members to the plight of these "prisoners of conscience", and letters are written to the governments of the countries in which they are imprisoned. Amnesty International members are frequently rewarded by learning of the release of "their" prisoner. Many schools now have their own Amnesty International groups. (If you'd like to start one in your school, write to the address on page 13.)

4. LOOKING AT LIFESTYLES

If we're really interested in environmentally sustainable development, we're going to have to closely examine the real enemy — ourselves! We are the ones who use up resources by consuming, and pollute the environment with our throw-away plastics. To work towards environmental sustainability, and away from a world of smog, heat, and used-up resources, we First-Worlders will have to take a hard look at:

★ what we buy (Do we need it? Does it use up non-renewable resources?)
★ how we travel (Foot, bike and bus are all easier on the environment than cars.)
★ what we do with our waste (Many Canadian communities are turning to recycling of paper, glass, tin and aluminum in an effort to re-use resources and keep their dumps from overflowing.)



"I would think people prefer aerosols to pump sprays because of the extra effort involved in using a pump."
(Jim May, spokesperson for S.C. Johnson and Co., makers of Johnson's Wax, speaking on his company's use of smog-producing hydrocarbons in aerosol tins)

5. CONSUMING CONSCIENTIOUSLY

Concerned First Worlders are finding that they have spending power. They can use their dollars to support countries and products which they feel are helpful, and to boycott those countries and products which are not. Even before Canada decided nationally to boycott South African wines and agricultural produce, many Canadians individually boycotted these products.

Boycotts that Worked

The Nestlé Boycott

Nestlé, one of the world's major producers of infant formula, actively promoted its products in the Third World, encouraging mothers who couldn't afford formula, or who didn't have access to clean water, to bottle-feed. The thousands of infant deaths caused by this aggressive marketing caused thousands of consumers in Europe and North America to stop buying all Nestlé products, and to write to Nestlé explaining why. After several years of boycott, Nestlé finally agreed to World Health Organization guidelines governing the selling of infant formula. Infant formula-watchers are presently concerned that Nestlé may be avoiding some of the guidelines, and the boycott has recently been re-instated.

The Coke Boycott

Coca-Cola's anti-union activities in Guatemala led to the deaths of eight union leaders in 1976. The International Union of Food and Allied Workers organized a worldwide boycott of Coke. Coke agreed to recognize the union, and to ensure agreements were binding. There was a setback when the Guatemalan plant owners tried to let their unionized plant run down, intending to declare bankruptcy and re-open under a new name. The boycott was re-activated, and in 1984 Coke, anxious about the bad publicity, ensured a continuance of the plant, and fair treatment of the workers.

Consumer-power can also be used to **support** products which **help** the Third World.

BRIDGEHEAD TRADING

In 1981, four Torontonians decided to start a trading company which supported people in the developing world. They established Bridgehead Trading Company, which imports tea and coffee, along with some other products, from the Third World. Coffee comes from Nicaragua and Tanzania (for more about the Tanzanian Instant Coffee, see Part 5: Food, Water & Health, page 6), tea from cooperatives in Sri Lanka. The workers get a good return for their product, and any profits made are spent on self-help projects in Nicaragua, Tanzania and Sri Lanka. Bridgehead has now been taken over by OXFAM-Canada, a Canadian NGO. It now sells, in addition to tea and coffee, crafts from self-help cooperatives around the world. (For Bridgehead's address, see page 13.)

6. BEING A SENSITIVE TOURIST

Tourism is something Canadians are used to. Visitors come from all over the world to see our waterfalls and wildlife. Third World people, too, are becoming increasingly accustomed to tourists strolling through their villages, taking pictures. But they often experience tourists as negative, rather than positive, influences.

So what's wrong with tourism? I would think they'd be glad to get the money!

Which brings us to the $64,000 Question on Third World tourism:

Who gets the money?

Gambia getting tourists but not always the hard cash

BY OAKLAND ROSS
Globe and Mail Correspondent

BANJUL, The Gambia

At the plush Atlantic Hotel—200 rooms, discotheque, hairdressing salon, video games, nightly entertainment—dozens of Londoners and Glaswegians sit by the pool, roasting in the West African sun.

It is an idyllic scene: the fatted men quaffing their half-pints of ale at the gazebo bar, while the women sprawl, supine and mainly topless, by the pool. Beyond a stone wall, punctuated by open grillwork, the blue Atlantic gently breaks against a long, golden beach, and the sewage of Banjul oozes silently out to sea.

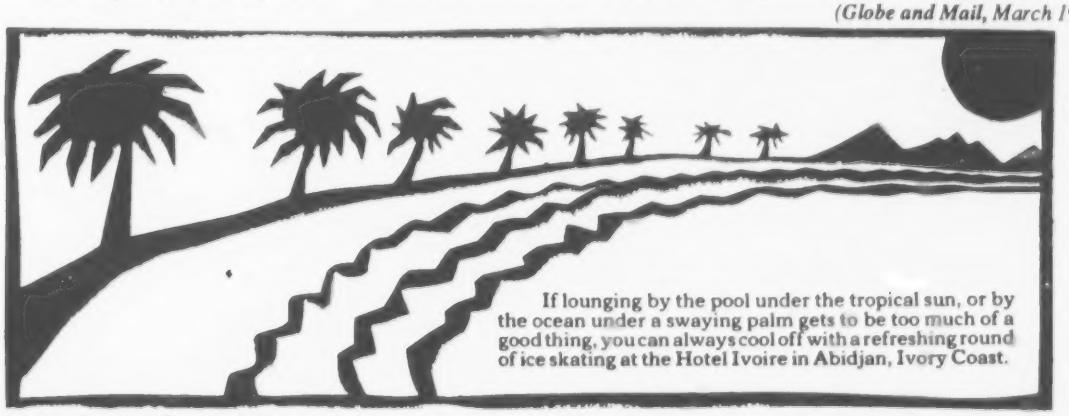
Welcome to "the Caribbean of Africa," where the average life expectancy at birth is 42 years, where the gross national product per capita is a meagre $260, and where tourism is booming.

"Our projections are that, in the next five years, we would be handling something like 150,000 to 200,000 tourists a year," said a beaming Junaidi Jallow, the Gambian Government's director of tourism.

Somewhere—but not here—a few clever and enterprising businessmen are contentedly counting their cash, in kroner, pounds, marks and francs.

Twenty-two high seasons have drifted by since this tiny former British colony greeted its inaugural planeload of Scandinavian sun seekers—launching what has since become a thriving local industry—but a lot of Gambians are still turning out their empty pockets, glancing around in confusion, and wondering what happened to all the money....

(Globe and Mail, March 1988)


If lounging by the pool under the tropical sun, or by the ocean under a swaying palm gets to be too much of a good thing, you can always cool off with a refreshing round of ice skating at the Hotel Ivoire in Abidjan, Ivory Coast.

Advertisement for Air Afrique

(Abidjan is the capital of Ivory Coast, GNP per capita $730.)

The Gambia: Tourism Facts

★ Benefit to the economy: US $4.2 million per year.

★ Government spending in the tourism industry: US $4.6 million per year.

★ Breakdown of receipts:

- 90% of the money paid by tourists leaves the country;
- 10% of the money stays in the Gambia.

(Information from South, April 1985)

If you were a citizen of the Gambia or Ivory Coast, you might have some questions about tourism:

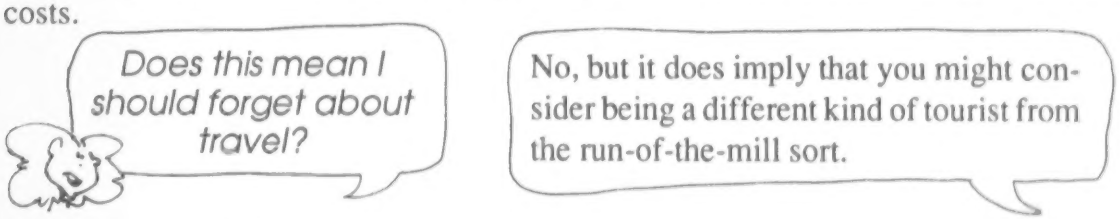
The affluence contrast:

- Who paid for the skating rink?
- Who benefits from the tourist trade?
- If my government put more funds into local industry instead of into tourist infrastructure, wouldn't I have a better chance to get a decent job? Jobs in tourism jobs pay so poorly!

The culture contrast:

- What gives them the right to take my picture as if I'm some sort of a freak?
- Why do they act as if my customs are inferior to theirs?
- How can they dress so indecently? I hope my children don't get wrong ideas from them!
- Why have our handiwork and carvings suddenly become cheap and shoddy and mass-produced?

Increasingly, Third World people, who once regarded tourism as a gold-mine, are beginning to question it. They're beginning to wonder if the benefits are worth the costs.


Does this mean I should forget about travel?
No, but it does imply that you might consider being a different kind of tourist from the run-of-the-mill sort.

Some Bright Lights in Tourism:

The Alternate Celebrations Catalogue, 3rd Edition. Alternatives, 1975

ALTERNATIVE TOURISM:

Alternative, small-scale tourism has long been popular in Europe, where many people prefer "bed and breakfasts" or "pensions" to large hotels. Some Third World countries are also starting to look into the benefits of alternative tourism, where tourists who want to see the real life of the country live with a family or rent part of a house.

The benefits of this type of tourism for the people of the country are that they receive a much higher proportion of the benefit. Government subsidies, rather than going to support large luxury hotels which send their profits out of the country, can be used to help families extend or upgrade their homes. The tourists benefit by experiencing the life of the country they are visiting, rather than experiencing imported "North Americana".

EDUCATING THE TOURISTS:

West Germany, which provides the greatest number of international tourists, has incorporated education into travel. Surveys conducted in W. Germany had shown that three-quarters of tourists would like to have more information about the places they plan to visit. A group of church development education groups responded to this by producing a series of films to be shown on charter aircraft en route to Third World destinations. As well as a basic introduction to each country, the films give some hints on tourist sensitivity.

7. VOLUNTEERING IN DEVELOPMENT

One way to help in the developing world is toVOLUNTEER there. A number of Canadian agencies send volunteers overseas to work, and to gain an understanding of the Third World which they can share with other Canadians.

Canada World Youth

CWY is a program for people aged 17 to 25, which features working groups of young people from Canada and a developing country. The group works together on community projects in a Canadian community, then goes to the developing country and works together there. The work done by the group is helpful, but even more helpful is the international understanding gained from working together, and from living in another country.

Canadian Crossroads International

Canadian Crossroads International includes participants19 year and up, from both Canada and Third World countries. Canadian participants work in a developing country for several months. Before they go, they must raise part of their fare through fundraising activities in their communities; when they return to Canada, they engage in presentations and events to help Canadians become more aware of international development issues.

CUSO

CUSO is a program for Canadians with professional or trade skills to help in Third World development. The agency responds to requests from developing countries for people with skills in everything from nursing to fishing to organizing cooperatives. Assignments are usually for two years.

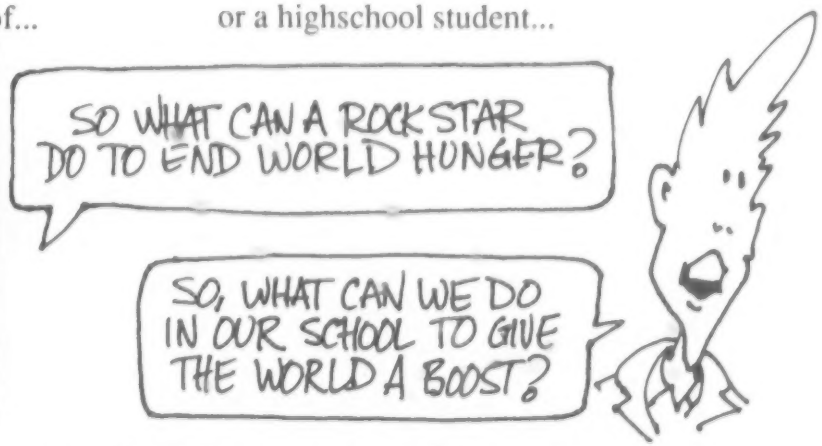
(For addresses of these agencies, see page13.)

Whatever way YOU decide to work for change, the number one rule is:

START FROM WHERE YOU ARE.

Whether you're Bob Geldof...

or a highschool student...



Whether you decide to put your effort into supporting NGOs working in Africa, lobbying your MP for increased aid to grassroots projects, or establishing a recycling system for the scrap paper in your school, if you look around you'll find that there's something that you can do to make a change.

People Making a Difference

All across Canada, individual people, and individual communities, are making a difference. Here are a few examples.

Reaching out across the world: Duncan, B.C. and Meru, Kenya

Duncan is a Vancouver Island community of 5,000 people. It is located in the Cowichan Valley, an area dependent on forestry and agriculture for its economic survival. When Christine and David Winter and their small daughter Katie arrived in Duncan in 1987, they found that many people in Duncan, like people in much of Canada, didn't know a lot about the Third World. People who had a different colour of skin, or came from exotic places, tended to be regarded with suspicion in Anglo-Saxon Duncan.

Christine, David, and Katie came from an exotic place themselves; from 1984 to 1987 they had worked with CUSO in Papua New Guinea. "We felt that if only Canadians could actually meet people from the developing world on a personal basis, they'd overcome their prejudice, and realize that we have a lot to learn from—as well as to offer to—Third World people," explained Christine. "If only there was a way for people from Duncan to meet face to face with people from other places!"

Events fell into place for Christine, and for Duncan. In the spring of 1988, Christine contacted the mayor of Duncan. Was there any way that the community of Duncan could be twinned with a town in the Third World? The mayor was interested. A committee of interested Duncan-ites was formed. They learned about a project set up by the **Federation of Canadian Municipalities**. Funded by **CIDA** (the Canadian International Development Agency), it was called ***Africa 2000: a Municipal Response***. Christine phoned Ottawa, and set the wheels in motion. In September, 1988, Duncan received exciting news: their community had been chosen as one of seven Canadian towns paired with African communities. The mayor, the city administrator, and Christine were to pack their bags for a meeting in Ottawa, followed by a two-week trip to the community of Meru, in Kenya.

Meru, like the Cowichan Valley, is a rural area. A rich agricultural area, it is self-sufficient in food when the rains come, but is very vulnerable to drought. In 1984 there were no rains, and Christine was told by people in Meru that three out of four infants had died.

The two-week visit passed in a whirl for the visitors from Duncan. They toured schools, facilities for the handicapped, a municipal housing project, and markets. They met with community groups, women's groups, and city administrators. Their purpose was to look for ways in which people in Duncan could link with people in Meru, and both help them and learn from them.

Was there a school which would like to exchange information with a school group in Duncan, a women's group which could be linked with a Duncan women's group? Were there aspects of city administration which could benefit from advice from Duncan administrators? What projects in Meru could Duncan people help with? Christine's group drew up a "wish list"; CIDA had promised $25,000 for the Duncan group to use to help with projects; how could this money be stretched to achieve the greatest effect?

The weary but wiser threesome who returned to Duncan after two weeks in Kenya were loaded with information, slides, and a whole set of people-to-people contacts.

The Vimy Hall Women's Group of Duncan was

Map: New Internationalist January 1984

linked with the Nkirote Women's Group in Kenya. Within a few weeks, letters were written, pictures sent, and plans were in place for two Duncan fundraising events: a benefit dance, and a recipe book featuring Kenyan recipes from the Nkirote Women's Group. Money would go to the Kenyan women's poultry project, allowing them to buy more hens, and sell the eggs to support needy families in their community.

The Tsahalem Weavers and Spinners Group in Duncan is about to begin correspondence with the Makena Textiles group, a women's weaving cooperative in Meru. The Tsahalem Weavers are interested in helping the Makena group in solving some of their marketing problems, and also in exchanging designs.

The Grade Two class of Kwohemun Elementary School in Duncan is preparing to write letters and create art projects to send to the Grade Threes of Meru Primary School. The Cowichan Agricultural Society and the Meru Agricultural Society are establishing links which may lead to an exchange of young farmers.

And that's only the beginning. "The linking possibilities are endless," says Christine.

The Duncan group also decided on a list of projects to support. The major one will be the Meru Municipal Community Group's work with "parking boys"—the equivalent of "street kids" in Canada. The Meru group is planning a boarding school, where "parking boys" (so called because they hang around parking lots) can attend school and live, along with regular, fee-paying students. Brentwood College, a boarding school just outside Duncan, is hoping to put aside time to raise funds to help build the new school. Some of the CIDA $25,000 will also be spent on small office aids—calculators, filing cabinets, etc.—which will help the city of Meru run more efficiently, and on other small self-help projects.

But the main benefit of the project, according to Christine, will not be the amounts of money sent to Meru. It will be people-to-people understanding and helping. In February, three more representatives from Duncan will visit Meru. One of them will be Duncan's Volunteer Fire Chief, who will explain to administrators in Meru how a volunteer fire brigade is organized. In March, two Meru representatives will come to Duncan. Among other people, they will meet with Duncan's sanitary engineer. Both Duncan and Meru have the same type of sewage system—settling ponds. But the Meru system is heavily overloaded. What tips can they learn from Duncan on how to handle this problem?

The village of Duncan is humming these days. The name "Meru", which several months ago meant nothing to Duncan residents, has taken on new meaning. The problems and the strengths of Africa, once far-off concepts, are now important realities to the groups of Duncan people who are writing, advising, and fundraising for groups of Meru people. Duncan is making a real difference to the lives of Meru inhabitants. And an essential element in getting it all going was the effort of a determined woman, Christine Winter.

Six other Canadian municipalities participated in the Canadian Federation of Municipalities' project ***Africa 2000: a Municipal Response*** in 1988. They were St. John's, Newfoundland; Edmunston, New Brunswick; Halton, Ontario; St. Albert, Alberta; Kamloops, B.C.; and Saanich, B.C.

Bringing Clean Water to the World: WATERCAN

Canadians are the biggest users of clean water in the world. Most of us turn on our taps, stand under our showers, water our gardens, without having to think about the shortages which plague so many of Africa's people.

But what if Canadians, when they received their water bills, also received a request for help from those people who don't have access to clean water? How would they respond? This was the question of Michael Lubbock, the Canadian who founded WaterCan. Canadian communities which join WaterCan agree to support clean water projects by sending out WaterCan appeals with their water bills. So far, 34 Canadian communities—from North Vancouver in B.C. to Happy Valley -

Goose Bay in Newfoundland—have joined WaterCan. Between them, they have funded self-help clean water projects in communities in Asia, Latin America and Africa.

The picture to the left was drawn by 5-year-old Ruth of Mapuche, Chile. If you look closely, you can see that it shows Ruth's yard, and in the yard is a water pump. The money for this pump, and others in the community, was raised by fudge sales, bottle drives and other fundraising events held by students from Shannon Park and Mount Edward Schools in Dartmouth, Nova Scotia. The money, contributed to WaterCan, was matched by CIDA, added to by OXFAM, and now translates into clean water for a Chilean community.

Getting the Goods to Market: The Global Village Store

For many Third World people producers, marketing is a problem. It's all very well to embroider shirts, or carve wooden masks, or grow coffee beans, but who will buy them at decent prices? A small group of determined Victoria residents decided to make a dent in the problem. In November 1988, they set up the **Global Village Store**, a non-profit store staffed and run entirely by volunteers. The goods sold at the store are from self-help cooperatives all over the world: carvings from Kenya, tapestries from Chile, mats from Vietnam, Bridgehead coffee from Tanzania and Nicaragua. Any money made by the store after producers receive a fair return for their work, will be sent to self-help projects in the Third World.

What was Victoria's response to the new store? "We've been run off our feet!" says Marya Nyland, one of the store's founders. "We originally hoped to sell five thousand dollars worth of goods by Christmas; we ended up selling $30,000 worth! People in Victoria really like the thought that they're helping Third World people to support themselves, and to live with some sort of dignity."

***The Alternate Celebrations Catalogue**, 3rd Edition. Greensboro: Alternatives, 1975*

USEFUL ADDRESSES:

Canadian Learner Centres:

Sprinkled all across Canada, these Learner Centres are valuable sources of films, slide-sets, speakers, and information about world development.

British Columbia

International Development Education Resources Association (IDERA)
2524 Cypress Street,
Vancouver, B.C.
V6J 3N2 (604) 732-1496

Global Village
101 - 259 Pine Street,
Nanaimo, B.C.
V9R 2B7 (604) 753-3322

Victoria International Development Education Association (VIDEA)
407 - 620 View Street,
Victoria, B.C.
V8W 1J6 (604) 385-2333

Alberta

Arusha Centre
233 - 10th Street, N.W.,
Calgary, Alberta
T2N 1V5 (403) 270-3200

Barbara Ward Centre
P.O. Box 3190,
St. Paul, Alberta
T0A 3A0 (403) 645-2454

Camrose International Institute
4802-49th Ave.,
Camrose, Alberta
T4V 0M7 (403) 672-8780

Edmonton Cross Cultural Centre
10920-88th Ave.,
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 0Z1 (403) 439-8744

World Citizens Centre
1011-4th Ave. S.,
Lethbridge, Alberta
T1J 0P7 (403) 328-5725

Unisphere Medicine Hat Cross Cultural Centre
101 - 6th St. S.E.,
Medicine Hat, Alberta
T1A 1G7 (403) 529-2656

Saskatchewan

Saskatchewan Cross Cultural Centre
134th Ave. F, South,
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
S7M 1S8 (306) 652-1571

South Saskatchewan Committee for World Development (SSCWD)
1602 - 12th Ave, 2nd floor,
Regina, Saskatchewan
S4P 0L6 (306) 522-6619

Manitoba

The Marquis Project
#200, 107-7th St.,
Brandon, Manitoba
R7A 3S5 (204) 727-5675

Inter-Cultural Development Education Association (IDEA)
60 Maryland St.,
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 1K7 (204) 786-2030

Ontario

Development Education Centre (DEC)
229 College St.,
Toronto, Ontario
M5T 1R4 (416) 925-8480

Guelph International Resource Centre
62 Yarmouth Ave.,
Guelph, Ontario
N1H 4G3 (519) 822-3110

Global Community Centre
89 - 91 King St. N.,
Waterloo, Ontario
N2J 2X3 (519) 746-4090

London Cross Cultural Learner Centre
533 Clarence St.,
London, Ontario
N6A 3N1 (519) 432-1133

World Inter-Action Ottawa
78 Daly Ave.,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1N 6A4 (613) 238-4659

International Centre John Deutch University Centre,
Queen's University
Kingston, Ontario
K7L 3N6 (613) 545-2604

SHAIR International Resource Centre
25 Hughson St. S.,
Hamilton, Ontario
L8N 2A5 (416) 528-9055

Third World Resource Centre
125 Tecumseh W.,
Windsor, Ontario
N8X 1E8 (519) 252-1517

Quebec

Association Carrefour international
6865, rue Christophe-Colomb,
Montreal, Quebec
H2S 2H3 (514) 272-2247

Carrefour de Solidarité internationale
555, rue Short,
Sherbrooke, Quebec
J1H 2E6 (819) 566-8595

Carrefour Tiers-Monde
454, rue Caron,
Quebec, Quebec
G1K 8K8 (418) 647-5853

Comité régional d'éducation pour le développement international (CREDI)
643, rue Notre-Dame,
Joliette, Quebec
J6E 3J3 (514) 756-0011

Centre de solidarité internationale Alma
530 ouest, rue Collard,
Alma, Quebec
G8B 5V8 (418) 668-5211

Nova Scotia

International Education Centre
St. Mary's University,
Halifax, Nova Scotia
B3H 3C3 (902) 420-5525

Newfoundland

St. John's Oxfam Committee
P.O. Box 18000,
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1C 6C2 (709) 753-2202

Prince Edward Island

Cooper Institute
81 Prince Street
Charlottetown, P.E.I.
C1A 4R3 (902) 894-4573

Other Agencies

Amnesty International
130 Slater Street, Suite 900,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1P 6E2 (613) 563-1891

Bridgehead Trading Company
397 Kent Street,
Ottawa, Ontario
K2P 2B1 (613) 232-6440

Canada World Youth
2330 Notre-Dame St. West,
Montreal, Quebec
H3J 1N4 (514) 931-3526

Canadian Crossroads International
31 Madison Ave.,
Toronto, Ontario
M5R 2S2 (416) 967-0801

*** Canadian Red Cross Society**
95 Wellesley Street East,
Toronto, Ontario
M4Y 1H6 (416) 923-6692

*** Canadian Save the Children Fund**
3080 Yonge Street, Suite 6020,
Toronto, Ontario
M4N 3P4 (416) 960-3190

In B.C.:
*** Save the Children Fund of B.C.**
325 Howe Street,
Vancouver, B.C.
V6C 1Z7 (604) 685-7716

*** CUSO**
135 Rideau Street,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1N 9K7 (613) 563-1242

*** Inter Pares**
58 Arthur Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1R 7B9 (613) 563-4801

*** MATCH International Centre**
200 Elgin St., #1102,
Ottawa, Ontario
K2P 1L5 (613) 238-1312

*** OXFAM Canada**
251 Laurier Ave. W., Suite 301,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1P 5J6 (613) 237-5236

*** UNICEF Canada**
443 Mount Pleasant Rd.,
Toronto, Ontario
M4S 2L8 (416) 482-4444

*** USC Canada**
56 Sparks St., Suite 705,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1P 5B1 (613) 234-6827

*** WaterCan**
323 Chapel Street,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1N 7Z2 (613) 230-5182

*** World University Service of Canada**
1404 Scott Street,
P.O. Box 3000, Station 'C',
Ottawa, Ontario
K1Y 4M8 (613) 725-3121

NOTE: The agencies listed are all secular ones. However, many Canadian churches and religious organizations are doing effective development work in the Third World, as well as development education in Canada.

Partnership Africa Canada (PAC) is a coalition of over 70 NGOs working in Africa or doing development education work in Canada. PAC strives to promote African development by supporting and strengthening African NGOs and by helping Canadians to understand and support African development.
Partnership Africa Canada,
300 - 1 Nicholas Street,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1N 7B7 (613) 234-8242

* The asterisks indicate agencies which support overseas development projects.

ACTIVITIES:

Activities in Part 10 depend on **you** — what **you** think is important, what **you** want to do to work towards a better future for Africa or for Canada, or—better still—for both. Some things that might help you clarify your thinking in this area are these:

1. Best and Worst Scenarios:

Page 1 lays out a best and worst case scenario for Africa. Page 2 points out that the problem is not only in Africa, but in Canada, too. In a small group, or individually, write out a best and worst-case scenario for the world in the year 2025. Then write out, in point form, the steps which will lead to each of these scenarios. What changes will be made if the world is to reach the best case scenario?

2. Keeping Informed:

Keep a bulletin board of world events. You may want to divide them into good news and bad news categories. When you read the clippings, look for signs of First-World bias. Are the events or phenomena reported from a First-World perspective only? Is a Third World perspective included?

Check the list of Learner Centres on pages 12 and 13. Is there one near you? Phone them up and arrange to drop in. See what kind of information they have, and what resources and services they offer.

3. Canadian NGOs:

As a class, write to a number of the NGOs listed on page 13. Ask for information about their projects. Evaluate the projects funded by the organizations, keeping in the mind the questions on page 3. Be ready to write or phone again, asking for specific information. Which organizations do you feel are most worthy of your support?

4. Rate your Lifestyle:

Read the section "Looking at Lifestyles" on page 4. Consider your own lifestyle in terms of buying, travel, and waste. Write down three changes which would make your lifestyle more environmentally sustainable.

5. Community Movers and Shakers:

Who are the movers and shakers in your community? Are there people who have worked towards world development, local sustainable development, community development? Line up a panel of these people. Be prepared to question them on their motivation (What got them started?); their techniques (Why have they been successful?); their ideas for needed change. What similarities can you see between people working at these three different levels?

Alternatively, interview a "mover and shaker" from your community. In class, compare notes on similarities and differences between these people.

6. The Ideal Tourist:

Not all of us, when we go to the Third World, flash our cameras in people's faces or parade around in our bikinis. In small groups, draw up a set of guidelines for tourists, encouraging them to be more sensitive as tourists: (Think about these areas: taking pictures, dress standards, understanding other customs, respecting places of worship, complaining about aspects of the country, shopping, listening to people, respecting people...you'll probably think of some more.)
Hint: Put yourself in the place of an average African person, and think how Western tourists might seem to you.

Part 10: THE FUTURE AND YOU
Teacher Notes

- ***The broad questions:***
  What are the possible futures for Africa? the world?
  What can one person do to work for effective change?

OVERVIEW:

Part 10 looks at best and worst-case scenarios for Africa, and suggests that the rest of the world, similarly, faces problems. The familiar question, "What can I do?" is tackled. Failure to deal with this question can engender feelings of hopelessness and powerlessness. When students realize that individuals and small groups of people are working to make significant changes in Africa and Canada, they are left with a sense of their ability to work towards a just and sustainable world order.

Key Concepts:

- Africa is at a crossroads. It can either pursue its established course, leading to further hunger and environmental degradation, or can radically shift to an approach stressing support for the small-scale farmer, and food self-sufficiency.
- Canadians affect African development, and are also affected by African development. Africa helps us see some of our own development problems more clearly.
- It's easy to feel helpless in the face of major world problems, but we can all help by:
  * keeping informed;
  * supporting Canadian NGOs working in Africa and elsewhere;
  * writing letters — to MPs, to governments;
  * looking at our own lifestyles;
  * consuming conscientiously (boycotting, supportive buy ing);
  * being a sensitive tourist;
  * going to the Third World with a volunteer organization.
- Three examples of individuals and groups working for greater international understanding and equity are examined.

AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES:

The World is Round (NFB 106C 176 631, 54 min.)

This film gives one answer to the question "What Can I Do?" by showing the activities of Canada World Youth, a Canadian organization in which young people from Canada and the Third World work together in each others' countries and learn about each others' cultures. The film shows three different projects with youth from Senegal, Malaysia, and Guatemala. The first 20 minute segment of the film(which could be used by itself), is the strongest. It deals with a Canada-Senegal project, capturing the warmth and intensely communal nature of west Africans, and the examination, by the young people involved, of their own cultural assumptions: "What's natural for us is not at all natural for them."

Pre-viewing Suggestion: The question "What do you learn when you visit a very different culture?" is a good opener. If you went to a Third World culture, what might you be able to give? What might you gain?

What Can I Do? (VIDEA Slide-Tape, 13 min.)

This slide-tape, designed for secondary students, briefly examines some of the developmental problems facing the world, and attempts to give down-to-earth ideas of personal actions which can make a difference. Contact your nearest learner centre for rental information (see pages 12-13), or contact VIDEA (Address on page 12) to purchase. Purchase price: $50.00 plus $2.50 shipping charges.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Here are some resources you may want to order for your library:

Background Information:

On Africa:

Harrison, Paul. **The Greening of Africa.** London: Paladin Paperback Original, 1987

Timberlake, Lloyd. **Africa in Crisis.** London: Earthscan, 1985 (Available in Canada through The Common Heritage Programme, Inter Pares, 58 Arthur Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1R 7B9

On Development:

The New Internationalist (excellent monthly publication featuring short, readable articles and punchy graphics) New Internationalist Publications, 511 King Street West, Toronto, Ontario M5V 9Z9

Williams, R. **Children & World Development.** London: UNICEF-UK/ Richmond Publishing Co. Ltd., 1987

CIDA Resources: CIDA puts out a number of **free** resources which contain good basic information on development. They are available from CIDA, Youth Editions, P.O. Box 1310, Station B, Hull, Québec J3Y 9Z9.

★ **Development** (quarterly magazine on international development issues, each relating to a particular development issue). You may want to request back issues, as well.

★ **Under the Same Sun** (periodical for adolescents published 3 times per year)

★ **A Developing World** (kit containing a wall map, teacher's guide and activity sheets)

★ **Insights** (catalogue listing NFB films and videos on international development issues)

VIDEA **Issues Series**: Set of 5 resource reading kits for secondary students on Resources/Environment, Food, Population, Economics, and Urbanization. Available from VIDEA, 407 - 620 View Street, Victoria, B.C. V8W 1J6

UNICEF. **The State of the World's Children** (published yearly) Oxford: Oxford University Press. (Recommended especially for its excellent statistics and graphs.)

On Environment:

Timberlake, L. **Only One Earth.** London: BBC Books, 1987

On Food:

Bennett, J. **The Hunger Machine.** Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1987

On Militarism and Development:

Sivard, R. **World Military and Social Expenditures** (published yearly) Washington: World Priorities, 1987 (Available in Canada through Project Ploughshares, Conrad Grebel College, Waterloo, Ontario N2L 3G6)

Teaching Guides:

On Development:

Canadian Red Cross Society. **Tomorrow's World.** Red Cross Youth, 1982. An excellent teaching resource.

Cooke, D. **Teaching Development Issues.** Manchester: Development Education Project, 1986. (Available from DEC, c/o Manchester Polytechnic, 801 Wilmslow Road, Manchester, England M20 8RG.) This 7-part series contains the following modules:

Part 1 .....Perceptions	Part 5 .....Population
Part 2 .....Colonialism	Part 6 .....Work
Part 3 .....Food	Part 7 .....Aid & Development
Part 4 .....Health	

On South Africa:

Bigelow, W. **Strangers in Their Own Country.** Trenton: Africa World Press, 1985. (Available in Canada from B.C.T.F. Lesson Aids Service, 2235 Burrard St., Vancouver, B.C. V6J 3H9)

index

A

Africa:
- African/Canadian Comparisons ..... Part 1, 11
- Geographic Fly-over ..... Part 1, 11
- Map, Political ..... Part 1, 10
- Regions ..... Part 1, 11
- Why Focus on Africa/ ..... Part 1, 10
- Worst-Case and Best-Case Scenarios ..... Part 10, 1

Afrik: A Simulation (Activity) ..... Part 2, 14-15
- Teacher Notes on Afrik ..... Part 2, 16-17

Age Distribution:
- A Note on Age Distribution ..... Part 7, 5
- Distribution Dilemma (Activity) ..... Part 7, 15

Agriculture:
- Agriculture in Africa ..... Part 5, 2-12
- American, African Farmers ..... Part 5, 8

Agroforestry ..... Part 6, 8

Aid:
- Aid Committee Game (Activity) ..... Part 4, 15
- Aid: General ..... Part 4, 11-13
- Canadian Aid & Environment ..... Part 6, 12
- Canadian NGOs (Activity) ..... Part 10, 14
- Food Aid: Blessing or Curse? ..... Part 5, 9
- Supporting NGOs ..... Part 10, 3

Apartheid:
- Apartheid Activities ..... Part 3, 12-13
- What Exactly is Apartheid? ..... Part 3, 2-3

Appropriate Technology ..... Part 4, 13

Azzel (A-V) ..... Part 8, 14

B

Bantustans, South Africa ..... Part 3, 3

Burkina Faso:
- Aid ..... Part 4, 11
- Literacy ..... Part 8, 11
- Soil Conservation ..... Part 6, 8
- Women Farmers ..... Part 8, 4

Burundi ..... Part 2, 4

C

Canada
- Apartheid in Canada? (Activity) ..... Part 3, 13
- Canada and African Debt ..... Part 4, 8
- Canada and South Africa ..... Part 3, 8-10
- Canada and South Africa (Activity) ..... Part 3, 12
- Canada's Aid Spending ..... Part 4, 13 & 17
- Canadian Aid Agencies ..... Part 10, 13
- Canadian/African comparisons ..... Part 1, 11

Children:
- Being Young in South Africa (Activity) ..... Part 3, 12
- Children and Protest, South Africa ..... Part 3, 4

Colonialism:
- Colonialism: General ..... Part 2, 1-7
- Colonialism: the After-Effects (Activity) ..... Part 2, 12
- Colonialism and Sudan ..... Part 9, 2-3
- Colonialism and Zimbabwe ..... Part 9, 10
- The Colonial Imprint (Activity) ..... Part 9, 15
- Neo-Colonialism ..... Part 2, 7
- Patterns Established by Colonialism ..... Part 2, 2-3
- Perspectives on Colonialism (Activity) ..... Part 2, 12
- Post-Colonial Effects ..... Part 2, 4-7

Commodities:
- Close-Up on Coffee ..... Part 4, 5
- Commodity Blues (Activity) ..... Part 9, 15
- Commodity-Dependence Resulting from Colonialism ..... Part 2, 3 & 6
- Commodities: Zambia Meets B.C. (Activity) ... Part 4, 14
- Overview ..... Part 4, 2-3
- Zambia/Canada ..... Part 4, 3-4

Consuming Conscientiously ..... Part 10, 5

Credit:
- The Cry for Credit (Activity) ..... Part 9, 15
- Sudan and Credit ..... Part 9, 6
- Zimbabwe and Credit ..... Part 9, 11
- Women and Credit ..... Part 8, 7

D

Debt:
- Debt: General ..... Part 4, 5-8
- Debt and Recovery: Whose Fault? (Activity) ... Part 4, 15
- Debt in Sudan ..... Part 9, 5
- Debt in Zimbabwe ..... Part 9, 13
- Getting into Debt (Activity) ..... Part 4, 14

Deforestation:
- Deforestation & Desertification ..... Part 6, 2-9
- Deforestation in Canada ..... Part 6, 11
- Forest Policy and People (Activity) ..... Part 6, 17
- (See also "Rainforest")

Desertification ..... Part 6, 2-9

Development:
- African Development: General ..... Part 1, 10-11
- Development: General ..... Part 1, 1-4
- Development Means Different Things to Different People (Activity) ..... Part 1, 12-13
- Patterns of Development ..... Part 2, 8-10
- What is Development? (Activity) ..... Part 1, 12

Development Without Tears (A-V) ..... Part 7, 18

Dumping:
- Pharmaceuticals/Toxic Substances ..... Part 5, 17-18
- Toxic Waste, Pesticides, DDT ..... Part 6, 12

E

Education:
- Education (Activity) ..... Part 8, 13
- Education and Colonialism ..... Part 2, 6
- Education: General ..... Part 8, 10-11
- Women and Education ..... Part 8, 9-10
- Zimbabwe: Education ..... Part 9, 13

Elites ..... Part 2, 5
Employment (See "Unemployment")
Environment:
- Africa—Key Solutions (Activity) ..... Part 6, 16
- Environment: General ..... Part 6, 1-16
- Best and Worst Scenarios (Activity) ..... Part 10, 14

Exploding Cities (A-V) ..... Part 7, 17

F

Farmers:
- A Farmers' Conference (Activity) ..... Part 9, 15
- The Small Farmer ..... Part 5, 12
- Sudan: Neglect of the Small Farmer ..... Part 9, 5-7
- Think Little! (Activity) ..... Part 5, 20
- Zimbabwe: Support for Small Farmers ..... Part 9, 11
- (See also "Agriculture", "Food", "Women Farmers")

First World/Third World ..... Part 1, 5
Food:
- Farmers—Canadian and African (Activity) ..... Part 5, 19
- Food: General ..... Part 5, 1-12
- Food Self-Sufficiency (Activity) ..... Part 5, 19
- Hunger in Canada (Activity) ..... Part 5, 18-19
- Who Feeds Whom?(Activity) ..... Part 5, 19
- (See Also "Agriculture", "Farmers", "Women Farmers")

Food Aid: Blessing or Curse? ..... Part 5, 9
- Food Aid: Blessing or Curse? (Activity) ..... Part 5, 19

Forestry ..... Part 6, 5 & 7-8
The Forgotten War (A-V) ..... Part 2, 17
The Fragile Mountain (A-V) ..... Part 6, 19
Frontline States ..... Part 3, 7-8

G

Gabon ..... Part 2, 5
Gender Inequity:
- Gender inequity: Overview ..... Part 1, 9
- Inequity (Activity) ..... Part 1, 14

Green Revolution for Africa ..... Part 5, 10
Greenhouse Effect ..... Part 6, 13-14
Gross Domestic Product (GDP) ..... Part 1, 6
Gross National Product (GNP) ..... Part 1, 6

H

Health:
- Health: Overview ..... Part 5, 15-18
- Senegal & Health ..... Part 5, 16
- When People Don't Have Safe Water ..... Part 5, 13
- Zimbabwe: Health ..... Part 9, 12

Homelands, South Africa ..... Part 3, 3
Housing:
- Housing, Squatters' ..... Part 7, 10-12
- The Housing Crunch (Activity) ..... Part 7, 15

Human Rights:
- Human Rights: Overview ..... Part 8, 1
- Africa, the Military, and Human Rights ..... Part 8, 2
- Education as a Human Right ..... Part 8, 10-11
- Human Rights in Zenbiloo (Activity) ..... Part 8, 12
- Women and Human Rights ..... Part 8, 3-10

I

Inequities:
- Class ..... Part 1, 8
- First World/Third World ..... Part 1, 7
- Futures (Activity) ..... Part 9, 14
- Gender ..... Part 1, 9
- Rural/Urban ..... Part 1, 8-9

Income Distribution:
- Figuring out the Wealth (Activity) ..... Part 2, 13
- Within Countries ..... Part 1, 8
- Who Gets the Wealth? ..... Part 2, 5

Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) ..... Part 1, 6
Information Sources ..... Part 10, 12-13
Infrastructure (Result of Colonialism) ..... Part 2, 3 & 6
IMF (International Monetary Fund):
- IMF and Zambia ..... Part 4, 3-4
- Overview ..... Part 4, 10

K

Kenya:
- Aid ..... Part 12, 4
- Duncan, B.C. & Meru, Kenya ..... Part 10, 9-10
- Green Belt Movement ..... Part 6, 7
- Human Rights ..... Part 8, 2
- Kenya and Development ..... Part 2, 9
- Women Farmers ..... Part 8, 4

L

The Land, a New Priority (A-V) ..... Part 5, 22
Land Distribution, Africa ..... Part 2, 6
Land Distribution, Zimbabwe ..... Psrt 9, 11
Life Expectancy ..... Part 1, 6
Lifestyles ..... Part 10, 4
Literacy Rate ..... Part 1, 6

M

Malawi ..... Part 5, 14
Maldevelopment ..... Part 1, 6
Man-Made Famine (A-V) ..... Part 5, 24
Mandela, Nelson:
- Nelson Mandela: Victim or Terrorist? ..... Part 3, 5
- Victim or Terrorist? (Activity) ..... Part 3, 12

Measures of Development ..... Part 1, 6

Militarization/War:
Africa, the Military, and Human Rights ..... Part 8, 2
Militarism and Refugees ..... Part 7, 13-14
Militarism versus Development (Activity) ..... Part 2, 13
Militarization of Africa ..... Part 2, 11-12
Sudan: Civil War ..... Part 9, 8
Zimbabwe: War ..... Part 9, 14
Mobility (A-V) ..... Part 7, 18
Mozambique: Building a Future (A-V) ..... Part 5, 24

N

Namibia ..... Part 3, 6-7
A New Look for Naledi (A-V) ..... Part 7, 17
Niger:
Aid ..... Part 4, 12
Forestry ..... Part 6, 7
Nigeria ..... Part 2, 4
North/South ..... Part 1, 5
Not Far from Bolgatanga (A-V) ..... Part 5, 23

O

Ozone Layer ..... Part 6, 14

P

Partners in Development (A-V) ..... Part 4, 16-17
Pastoralists:
Pastoralists and Colonialism ..... Part 2, 4
Pastoralists and Education (*Azzel* — A.V.) ..... Part 8, 14
Pastoralists and Environment ..... Part 6, 6 & 9
Pesticides:
Dumping of Pesticides ..... Part 6, 12
Pesticides—Prior Informed Consent (Activity) Part 6, 17
The Politics of Food (A-V) ..... Part 5, 24
Pollution:
CO_2 Emissions ..... Part 6, 14
Pollution Top Nine (Activity) ..... Part 6, 18
Pollution Solutions (Activity) ..... Part 6, 18
Population:
Population Activities ..... Part 7, 14-15
Population: Overview ..... Part 7, 1-5
Poverty:
Poverty in the Third World ..... Part 1, 7
Poverty and Environment ..... Part 6, 9
Poverty and Environment (Activity) ..... Part 6, 16
Primary Health Care ..... Part 5, 15-16
Progress (Activity) ..... Part 1, 14
Protest, South African ..... Part 3, 4

R

Rainforest:
Rainforest: General ..... Part 6, 10-11
The Rainforest (Activity) ..... Part 6, 17
Refugees:
Refugees: General ..... Part 7, 13-14
Refugees (Activity) ..... Part 7, 15
Roots of Hunger, Roots of Change (A-V) ..... Part 5, 22

S

SADCC ..... Part 3, 7-8
A Safety Net (A-V) ..... Part 5, 22
Self-Help (Rural) ..... Part 5, 11-12
Senegal:
Urban Housing ..... Part 7, 11
Vaccination Program ..... Part 5, 16
Soil Conservation ..... Part 6, 7-8
SOS...Africa...Forests (A-V) ..... Part 6, 20
South Africa ..... Part 3, 1-14
Speaking of Nairobi (A-V) ..... Part 8, 14
Sudan:
Sudan: General ..... Part 9, 1-9
Sudan Activities ..... Part 9, 14-15
Sustainable Development:
Definition ..... Part 1, 6
Sustainable vs. Unsound Development ..... Part 6, 15
Sustainable Development—
A World Perspective (Activity) ..... Part 6, 18

T

Tanzania:
Aid ..... Part 4, 12
Tanzania and Development ..... Part 2, 10
Technology, Appropriate ..... Part 4, 13
Third World: Definition ..... Part 1, 5
This Borrowed Land (A-V) ..... Part 5, 23
This is a Recorded Message (A-V) ..... Part 1, 16
Top Priority (A-V) ..... Part 2, 17
Tourism:
Being a Sensitive Tourist ..... Part 10, 6-7
The Ideal Tourist (Activity) ..... Part 10, 14
Trade:
Trade: General ..... Part 4, 1-4
Enlightened Self-Interest (Activity) ..... Part 4, 14
Trees of Hope (A-V) ..... Part 6, 20
Trees of Plenty (A-V) ..... Part 6, 20
Tribalism:
A History of Division ..... Part 2, 4
Canadian Tribalism (Activity) ..... Part 2, 13

U

Urbanization:
Urbanization: General ..... Part 7, 6-12
Urbanization Ills (Activity) ..... Part 7, 15
Unemployment:
Solutions ..... Part 7, 12
Unemployment: General ..... Part 7, 8-9

V

Vaccination Programs ..... Part 5, 16

W

Water:
- Water: Overview ..... Part 5, 12-14
- Water—a Simulation (Activity) ..... Part 5, 20

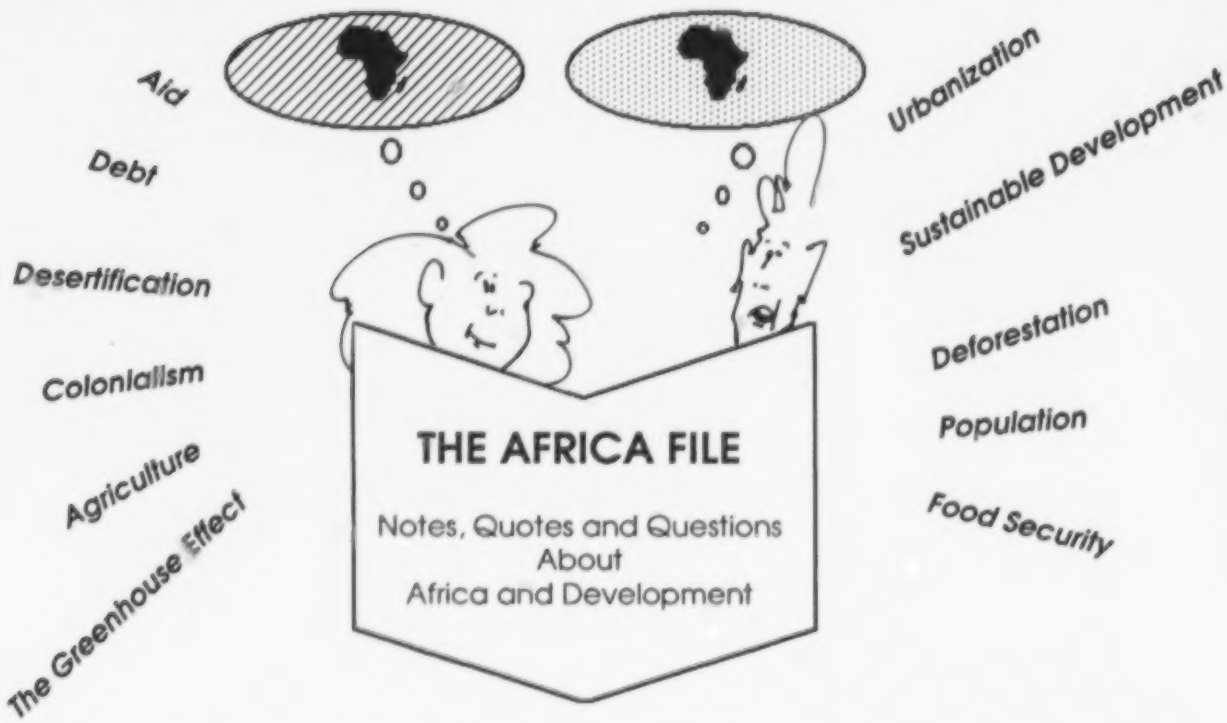
Western Bias ..... Part 2, 7
What Can I Do? ..... Part 10, 1-14
What on Earth are We Doing? (A-V) ..... Part 1, 16
With These Hands (A-V) ..... Part 5, 24
Women:
- Women & Development ..... Part 8, 3-10
- Gender Inequity ..... Part 1, 9 & 14
- Inequity (Activity) ..... Part 1, 14
- Unjust Structures (Activity) ..... Part 8, 12
- Women and Education ..... Part 8, 9-10
- Women and Health ..... Part 8, 8-9
- Women and Human Rights (Activity) ..... Part 8, 13
- Women and Politics ..... Part 8, 8
- Women and Water ..... Part 5, 13
- Women Farmers:
  - African Women Farmers ..... Part 8, 4
  - African Women Farmers (Activity) ..... Part 8, 12
  - Canadian Women Farmers ..... Part 5, 8
  - Male Bias ..... Part 5, 6-7

Women—All One Nation (A-V) ..... Part 8, 14
World Bank ..... Part 4, 9
The World is Round (A-V) ..... Part 10, 15

Z

Zambia:
- Zambia: a Single Commodity Economy ..... Part 4, 3-4
- Zambia Must Heed Its Women ..... Part 5, 7

Zimbabwe:
- A Birth Control Success Story ..... Part 7, 5
- Zimbabwe: General ..... Part 9, 10-14
- Zimbabwe Activities ..... Part 9, 14-15



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